

# The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

*Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine*

EDITED IN CO-OPERATION WITH A

COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, MANAGING EDITOR

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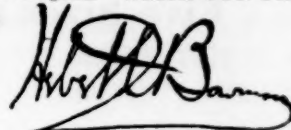
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# The Historical Outlook

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## The Social Studies in the Grades—1909-1929

BY ARMAND J. GERSON, Ph.D., ASSOCIATE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, PHILADELPHIA

This paper is a recording of a personal impression of present-day tendencies in the teaching of the social studies in the elementary schools. It is not a comprehensive survey of school practices, nor is it a summary of conclusions based on scientific research. Such conclusions as have been reached are the outcome of close contacts for more than twenty years with the public schools of a large city system, and of the related reading for which time could be found in the busy life of a practical school administrator, whose special interests have been classroom methods and the teaching of the social studies.

### THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE OF EIGHT

It is exactly twenty years since the publication of "The Study of History in the Elementary Schools," a document more generally referred to as the Report of the Committee of Eight of the American Historical Association. Few educational pronouncements have exerted a more profound influence upon the curriculum of the elementary schools of the nation. Of necessity, this committee report becomes the point of departure for any review of history teaching in the grades during the last twenty years.

Teachers of history are familiar with the Committee of Eight's chief recommendations: its acceptance of American history as the core of the course during the elementary period; its introduction of stories of Indian life and of public holidays in the lower grades; its biographical approach to the development of our national history in grades three, four, and five; its more formal presentation of United States History in grades six, seven, and eight, built on a foundation of European antecedents developed in grade six.

The report of the committee represents the older form of approach to curriculum building, but is typical of the best work of the period in which it was made. It is empirical rather than scientific, and handed down from above rather than developed through the co-operative effort of the teachers themselves. Nevertheless, it has, on the whole, withstood the changes of two decades, and has furnished the basis for general practice throughout the country.

In two respects only have the recommendations of the Committee of Eight seemed to require fundamental modification. In the first place, basic changes in all of the elementary courses of study have been necessitated by the development of the junior high school movement. The junior high school, of course, must not be regarded as the mere housing under one roof of the last two years of the elementary school and the first year of the high school. It is the or-

ganization of a new school unit covering the adolescent period, and calling for the solution of problems peculiar to pupils of this age. As the junior high school is increasingly recognized as belonging in the field of secondary education, it is not within the scope of this paper to discuss the various suggestions that have been made for the organization of a new course in the social studies for the junior high school grades. Suffice it to say that the establishing of a point of division at the beginning of grade seven, and the setting up of grade six as the highest grade of the elementary school, suggests certain fundamental revisions in the grade course. Various attempts have been made to construct elementary courses of study on a six-grade basis. The Special Committee on History and Education for Citizenship in the Schools, for example, recognized this necessity in the report it issued in 1921. This committee, later affiliated with the American Historical Association, was organized at the close of the war under the auspices of the National Board of Historical Service. In its report the committee outlined an elementary course in American history covering the grades from three to six, arranging for the junior high school grades a redevelopment of the story of American history in its world setting. Either this or some equivalent plan would seem to be absolutely necessary in those school systems which have accepted the junior high school idea. The European background of American history in grade six was obviously intended as a foundation on which to construct the history of our own country in grades seven and eight. The study of our European antecedents is an illogical and unnatural culmination of a six-grade elementary course.

Another recommendation of the Report of the Committee of Eight which has not worked out satisfactorily in practice is the biographical treatment of American history prescribed for grade five. The theory back of the suggestion is probably sound. Children of fifth-grade age, i. e., at the age of ten or eleven, are probably more vitally interested in persons than in events or relationships. Unfortunately, it was not realized at first that the biographical treatment of a large number of great Americans would almost surely defeat its own purpose and result in a generally confused impression instead of a clear idea of the development of the nation. Attempts were made to guide teachers in subordinating the less important facts in the lives of our leaders, and in applying biographical information to the building

up of a general idea of the history of the United States. It was finally found necessary, in at least one city school system, to prepare a complete revision of the fifth-grade course, reducing the number of biographies to be studied, and definitely relating the study of historic personalities to a sequence of important historic episodes. Only so has it seemed possible to bring about the proper subordination of biographical details to the narrative development which is the chief objective of the work of this grade.

#### CURRICULUM BUILDING

In referring to the Report of the Committee of Eight mention has been made of the fact that this study represented the older method of approach to the construction of school curricula. Perhaps no educational development of recent years has been more significant than the shift of viewpoint in reference to curriculum building. Twenty years ago courses of study were chiefly evolved from the minds of individual educators, or as the result of committee conferences. They represented opinion and little else. To be sure, this opinion was usually based on practical experience, but on last analysis it was still, for the most part, merely opinion. In more recent years analytical thinkers have come to realize that there is a body of related knowledge on which all curriculum construction should be based. There is, in the first place, the necessity to discover what the changing conditions of life today demand of the pupils trained in our schools. The acceptance of this basis has led to large-scale investigations, comprising inquiries that touch upon all phases of civilized living, with the result that there has been gathered together a large body of "needs" which the schools may definitely be expected to meet. The next stage is the classification and organization of this material to furnish a basis for those larger objectives around which courses of study may be built.

Along with this clarification of objectives has come a very important recognition of individual pupil differences. Whereas, some years ago, the curriculum was relatively inflexible and the idea was generally accepted that pupils of varying abilities must adjust themselves to a common standard of achievement, today there is an increasing realization that the curriculum itself must be flexible and capable of adjustment to varying pupil needs and abilities. In many parts of the country pupils are grouped on the basis of mental capacity, and the curriculum used for the various groups is adapted to the varying levels of pupil ability. Though the fallibility of mental tests as a basis of pupil classification is still disputed by many writers, and though attempts at curriculum modification on this basis have not been entirely satisfactory, there is no question of the fact that pupil differences are receiving a larger share of the attention of educators than ever before, and this fact has a very large bearing upon curriculum construction.

Finally, and in the third place, the last twenty years have witnessed a transition from the teacher-centered to the child-centered situation in elementary school procedure. Largely as a result of the influ-

ence of Dr. John Dewey and the newer school of educational thinkers, the "project," through which the child is seeking to accomplish a purpose of his own, has come to take the place of the "assignment," in which the pupil is carrying out a task prescribed by the teacher. From the new point of view interest and activity are regarded as more important than mere factual knowledge. In the words of Dr. Harold O. Rugg, who very definitely exemplifies the modern attitude, "Not the learning of texts, but the solving of problems is what we need. Our materials must be organized around issues, problems, unanswered questions, which the pupil recognizes as important and which he really strives to unravel." Although conservative schoolmen have resisted and still are combating the modern movement on the ground that it tends to disorganize topic sequences and the logical presentation of subject-matter, the project method has today been widely accepted and is an important force in the revision of school curricula.

The general influences in curriculum building just enumerated have been particularly marked in the field of the social studies. In this field there has been and still is a very large amount of controversy. Among courses of study history has long been regarded as necessitating a sequential order of treatment. Geography, though its content cannot be said to have a predetermined order, as in the case of history, nevertheless is said by many to imply a consideration of regional units which might find themselves in conflict with a project method of presentation. Civics, the third of the elementary social studies, is less trammelled by any inherent order of development, but even here those teachers of civics who prefer to stress the governmental side of the subject are prone to feel that a logical sequence of development is implied. Despite these difficulties, there is discernible an increasing flexibility in the curriculum in the social studies, though it must be admitted that this flexibility is probably more in the direction of a modification of classroom methods than of the content of the courses of study themselves.

#### THE UNIFICATION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Of far-reaching significance is a suggestion which has been gaining ground rapidly in recent years looking toward the elimination of the traditional separation between the social studies, and the setting up of a unified curriculum covering the common objectives of history, civics, geography, and current events. The plan, of which Dr. Harold O. Rugg has been the chief sponsor, proposes the elaboration of a series of pupil projects, the working out of which will involve the gathering of material from the various social studies, each of which is thereby subordinated to the special problems under consideration. Inquiry has revealed a widespread interest in this program on the part of educators in all parts of the country. A questionnaire sent out by the National Education Association's Commission on the Curriculum received responses predominantly favorable to the unification idea, though it is significant of our prevailing conservatism in such matters that most of the replies represented no commitment to the new program, but rather an

open-minded interest in the proposal and at best a general agreement with the principle involved.

Objection has been raised that the principal outcome of the suggested unification of the social studies would be ignorance on the part of children as to the continuity of history and confusion as to the relationship of geographic facts. To meet this difficulty suggestions have been made providing for certain summaries in the fields of history and geography subject-matter, such summaries to intersperse the project sequences and to furnish an organized factual background for the pupils' thinking. The compromise has not proved entirely acceptable. Dr. Frank McMurry, reviewing a specific suggestion along this line, an outline of the topic "Immigration," prepared by Messrs. Rugg and Miss Schweppe, of the Lincoln School of Teachers College, as a unit of work in their experimental junior high school program, says: "This pamphlet....proposes a few weeks' course in which civics, geography, and to some extent history are typically merged....Page fifty begins with the following: 'Geography we should know about the countries from which immigrants come,' and then follow two pages given to location....This is as utterly barren subject-matter as can be found anywhere....Similar, but, if possible, worse subject-matter is found....under the caption, 'Parts of Europe From Which Immigrants Sail to America.'....If these pages are a fair example of the geography to be gotten by merging the social sciences, then deliver us from such merging!....I strongly suspect that modern teachers of history would make similar complaint with regard to that subject." To which the obvious rejoinder is that this may not be a fair sample. The entire question remains one for further investigation, experiment, and study.

#### HISTORY TEXTBOOKS

No discussion of public school progress during the past generation can omit reference to the great advance which has been made in the preparation of textbooks. Commercial competition undoubtedly accounts in some measure for this marked and rapid change. Progressive publishing houses have been attracted by the possibilities of the public school market, more particularly in the elementary field. The result has been the publication of numerous series of new or revised texts, attractively bound, typographically pleasing, well indexed, furnished with suitable illustrations, maps, and charts, and including helpful lists of "questions on the text," "references for collateral reading," and "suggestions to the teacher." The change, marked in all the subjects of the school curriculum, has been particularly conspicuous in the field of the social studies.

Of special significance in the history textbook movement has been the contribution made by historical scholars. Chiefly in the cause of historical accuracy, but partly perhaps in pursuit of the prestige which the name of a well-known authority reflects upon the pages of a school textbook, the preparation of basic and supplementary texts for young pupils has fallen more and more into the hands of

subject specialists. And this is as it should be.

An unlooked-for reaction to the greater authenticity of history textbooks, however, has found expression in numerous popular protests regarding the changes of emphasis and even of statements of fact. The books from which the adults of today studied American history a generation ago represented in many instances a one-sided interpretation of the past. Actuated by patriotic motives, and too often untrammelled by accurate knowledge of historic fact, these books had tended to establish a self-satisfied and uncritical attitude of mind which, perhaps naturally, resented any readjustment of its conception of the nation's early history. This resentment was particularly keen when the personalities and motives of the great leaders of the days of our national beginnings came into question. To the extent that a few of the newer books seemed to take delight in the discounting of a proper reverence for our early heroes this resentment was largely justified.

Soon anti- and pro-foreign issues entered the discussion. The World War, with its inevitable emotional concomitants, intensified the controversy. The "battle of the books" was on. Untrained laymen, with no claim to historical scholarship, took the ground that they were competent to pass judgment, not only on what the schools should teach, but on the accuracy of the conclusions of historical research. The quarrel reached its culmination when attempts were made to secure repressive legislation, and governmental agencies began to take part in the controversy.

Fortunately, with the passing of the years, sober reason seems, little by little, to be coming once more into its own. The "scholars" have in many instances made revisions of statement in the direction of deleting unnecessary comments reflecting on the leaders of the early days, or superfluous statements offensive to certain groups or nationalities. Their critics, on the other hand, seem to be gradually adopting an attitude of greater tolerance and fuller understanding.

A deeper seated and, in some respects, a more serious consequence of the turning over the making of elementary history textbooks to the college professor has been the tendency to "write above" the comprehension of young pupil readers. There has been a serious effort to meet this difficulty, often through the collaboration of persons in close contact with the elementary school situation. Nevertheless, the danger has not been completely obviated. Dr. Adelaide M. Ayer's illuminating study of fifth-grade history texts, from the point of view of their adaptability to the mind level of the children for whom they were written, reveals a startling condition. In the report of her investigation, published in 1925 under the title, "Some Difficulties in Elementary School History," Dr. Ayer makes it clear that from the point of view of vocabulary and form of statement, as well as from that of the nature of the problems discussed, we have been attempting to teach children history in a language far beyond the limits of their comprehension. There are evidences that Dr. Ayer's study is already beginning to bear fruit. The day is undoubt-



edly on the way when the fitness of textbooks to any particular age of pupil will not be determined in advance by the guess of the author, however competent, but on the basis of preliminary experiment with large groups of children. Not until we learn to write for pupils in their own tongue can we hope to arouse their interest or insure their intelligent comprehension.

#### ELEMENTARY CIVICS

In none of the social studies have the changes of the last twenty years been so marked as in the field of civics. A generation ago this subject, when it was given recognition in the elementary school curriculum, was limited to a simplified study of government. Usually this study was restricted to the upper grades and took the form of verbatim memorization of the Constitution of the United States.

In comparison with this narrow interpretation of the subject, the connotation of the term "civics" has, in more recent years, broadened out of all recognition. Today civics includes the whole body of material which relates to preparation for citizenship. And citizenship is interpreted by the schools to cover not only the various relations that obtain between the individual and his government, but to embrace as well all those activities which bring him into relation with his fellow-men. More than that, citizenship is not an attribute peculiar to adults. The child also is a citizen, and has rights, duties, and privileges in relation to the community of which he is a member, whether that community be regarded as his home, his school, or any other social group in which he lives.

This broadening of the conception of civics has been reflected in the elementary school curriculum. In the last two decades city after city, State after State, has incorporated into its school program definite provision for citizenship training. Civic virtues, such as obedience, respect for authority, reliability, and the like find a place in many courses of study, and definite suggestions are given the teacher as to how they may be inculcated. In general, preachment is avoided; instead, advantage is taken of the many opportunities offered by school situations and of the references found in the stories and poems of the grade to build up proper attitudes and wholesome habits. On this foundation a graded program is constructed stressing the fundamental ideas of service and interdependence. Consideration of service leads to a review of vocations and occupations, including a study of thrift, and these in turn to a simplified survey of governmental agencies, first local, then State, then national. Such in brief is the outline of a typical elementary course in civics, the topics being carefully graded and distributed over the six years of the elementary school.

In the modern school civics is taught as a "doing" subject, rather than as a body of information to be learned. From the very beginning, the classroom situation offers abundant opportunity for the building up of wholesome relationships and the creation of a dynamic appreciation of the individual's obliga-

tions to the group to which he belongs. Throughout the grades this concept is developed and elaborated, socialized classroom activities, school play, and pupil government all making significant contributions. The modern school is consciously directing its efforts toward the building up of that group of civic habits and attitudes which has come to be known as "school citizenship." It is not too much to say that nowhere in the schools of America has a more valuable piece of constructive work been attempted.

Recent years have seen the awakening of keen public interest in the problem of character education. This is in part a recognition of a rapidly growing public appreciation of a vital need, and in part a reaction from the narrowly intellectual and materialistic aim of the schools of the past. "What is a man profited if he shall gain the whole world and lose his own soul" is equally applicable today to the individual and to the community. It is true that the social studies must be on their guard lest they be charged with responsibility for the entire educational program on the ground that all education has as its ultimate aim the social efficiency of the individual. Nevertheless, it is hard to see how this group of subjects can escape responsibility for character education, which on ultimate analysis may be defined as training in the sense of one's duty to society and to the community in which one's lot is cast.

#### THE OUTLOOK

In the teaching of the social studies in the grades, as in many other phases of educational procedure, teachers are probably further from agreement in 1929 than they were in 1909. Some of the questions at issue have been mentioned in this paper. Wide disagreements exist, for example, as to the unification of the course, as to the status of geography as a social study, as to the relative values of information and pupil interest, as to the proper distribution of history topics through the grades. This condition, disturbing as it may seem at first glance, is not cause for apprehension. Rather should it be taken as indicative of an intellectual activity out of which in the end much good will come to the schools. As earnest of such an outcome is the obvious fact that on all sides we are surrounded by unmistakable evidences of progressive change.

In the teaching of the social studies in the grades, progress is particularly striking in the rapid changes which have characterized methods of instruction. Reference has already been made to some of the most conspicuous instances of this development, particularly in the direction of the individualizing of instruction, and in the emphasis on pupil activity. Closely related to these changes in instructional procedure has been the marked development of the idea of "socialization." This movement may properly be regarded as a sort of necessary offset to the emphasis placed in recent years upon pupil individualization. Just as vital as the necessity for each pupil moving in the direction and at the rate of speed fitted to his special ability is the need for training him to work



with others and to co-ordinate his efforts with those of his colleagues. Committee assignments, group projects, socialized recitations—these forms of pupil participation are receiving increasing attention from year to year, and are clear evidences of a recognition in the progressive elementary schools of today of the vital importance of "group activity."

Of great importance also are the great strides which have been taken in the development of objective aids in the teaching of the social studies. Visual education, with its use of the stereopticon, the stereoscope, and the motion picture, is playing an increasing part. Other objective procedures which are receiving more and more attention in the elementary grades are classroom dramatizations and school excursions. These aids to instruction are tending to insure not only an added interest in the work, but a surer comprehension and a greater permanence of result.

Mention of the present widespread interest in the measurement of the results of instruction must not be omitted from this review. While the testing of pupils' knowledge has always been recognized as an essential part of the teaching process, it is only in comparatively recent years that we have begun to realize the possibilities of applying to the results of instruction scientific, objective standards of measurement. It is true that the social studies, through the

very nature of their aims, will never admit of the same sort of objective evaluation as we can apply to such definite school subjects as spelling, handwriting, or arithmetic. Nevertheless, even in history, civics, and geography, much of value can be secured through the application of objective standards in testing the results of our teaching. A danger that must be carefully avoided in this connection is the mechanizing of instruction, for after all only certain phases of the teaching of the social studies, and those probably not the most important, admit of yard-stick measurement. Appreciations, attitudes, and interests are educational outcomes which scarcely admit of this treatment. An exaggerated concentration of our instruction upon the definitely measurable phases of these subjects would be calamitous. With this caution in mind, much good is unquestionably to be expected as the result of our rapidly growing testing program.

In conclusion it should be re-emphasized that the outlook is bright. Educational procedure in general is receiving more thoughtful attention than ever before in the history of the schools, and a critical public is demanding a corresponding improvement in the educational product. There is every reason to believe that our fast-changing practices are moving in the direction of real progress, and nowhere is this progress more evident than in the field of the social studies.

## Nationalism in German History Textbooks after the War

BY PAUL E. LUTZ, ST. PAUL, MINN.

Treitschke, the most passionate of partisans, would have none of that bloodless objectivity which does not say on which side is the narrator's heart.<sup>1</sup> He wrote for Germans and strove to awaken in the reader's heart a delight in the Fatherland.<sup>2</sup> It was his belief that the destinies of the Fatherland must seem to the historian like joys and sorrows that have been personally experienced if he is to furnish convincing truth to historical narrative.<sup>3</sup> On the other hand, Ranke succeeded in divorcing the past from the passions of the present. His own strong opinions remained locked in his bosom, and there were neither heroes nor villains in his dramas.<sup>4</sup> Such is the heritage of German historians: Treitschke holding "bloodless objectivity" in disdain and Ranke successfully maintaining the strictest objectivity.

Treitschke's conception of the function of the historian was considered the dominating influence upon history textbook writers in Germany before the war. It was held by many that their purpose was to glorify the Fatherland and stir the nation to action.

The overthrow of the Imperial Government and the establishment of the Republic based upon the Constitution of Weimar ushered in a new period of German history. On the surface, at least, the new government was democratic, and aimed to foster a spirit of inter-

national conciliation in the schools as specifically provided for in Article 148 of the Constitution of Weimar. Just how deeply this spirit had penetrated was a moot question.

In 1921 the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace undertook a study of textbooks in Germany (geography, literature, history), to learn whether or no they were written so as to animate a spirit of international conciliation, a democratic spirit, and a proper attitude toward the World War. This study, which included an investigation of textbooks in use in other countries, was published under the title, "Dotation Carnegie pour la Paix Internationale, Enquête sur les Livres Scolaires d'après Guerre."

This report concluded that in Germany military history was still dominant, that monarchs and generals were still glorified, and that children were still being taught that Germany is God's elected, and that might makes right. If the youths are taught that Germany's greatest prosperity was the result of wars, the report questions whether they can be peaceful and democratic when they are men. If the League of Nations is discredited in histories, the youths cannot have confidence in this new institution. If examples are needed of heroes who sacrificed their lives for others, then give examples from the field of science, rather than war heroes, says the report.

Another criticism of the textbooks is that they keep the children in ignorance of other countries and concentrate too much on things that are German. They fail to emphasize the true greatness of Germany, which lies in the fields of music, philosophy, science, and industry. The report also indicates that the war either is not mentioned or is presented in such a manner as to give the impression that it was forced upon Germany contrary to her desires.

The Carnegie Inquiry found that few new history books had appeared in Germany since the World War, and that the schools were either using those previously written or the few new ones which retained the pre-war point of view. Lack of new books was held to be due either to the excessive cost of publication and the desire of the publishers to rid themselves of their stocks, or to a desire on the part of the Germans to hide their defeat from their children.

In the few new books which did consider the World War, the Inquiry found that they taught that the causes were: the encirclement of Germany by her enemies, the desire of France for revenge, Russia's desire to remove obstacles to her expansion, and jealousy of Germany's industrial and commercial expansion. The true reason for England's declaration of war was not the violation of Belgian neutrality; this was used as a pretext. The aim of those who made the peace treaty was to prostrate Germany. The textbooks did not accept the "war guilt" which was forced upon them in the Versailles treaty. The report concluded that the treatment of the World War in the textbooks was not satisfactory.

Probably because of the unfavorable position in which the Carnegie Inquiry placed history textbooks and history teaching in Germany, the History Teachers' Association of Germany published in 1927 the results of an inquiry, which was conducted by members of the Association into the treatment given to Germany in foreign history textbooks after the World War. (*Deutschland im Lichte ausländischer Schulbücher der Nachkriegszeit.*) The committee which compiled the report states in the preface that it is to be regretted that the collaborators of the *Enquête*, who so profusely expressed their desire to promote the common cause of Europe, did not use more discretion in their work. Both the time and the method of investigation were, according to the German history teachers, prejudicial to the value of the results of the study, and they regret that a supplement has not been issued to correct the impression given concerning school books of the post-war period.<sup>5</sup>

The German investigators considered thirty-nine books in their study: twenty-five French, six Belgian, five English, and three American. The American books considered were: Henry W. Elson, *Modern Times and Living Past*. Part Two. American Book Co., 1921; Lawton B. Evans, *The Essential Facts of American History*, revised edition. Benj. Sanborn and Co. 1924; and William Backus Guitteau, *Our United States*, Silver Burdett and Co., New York. 1922.<sup>6</sup>

The greater portion of the 109 pages of the report consists of quotations taken from these books on German mentality, the mentality of other people, and the World War. One cannot conclude otherwise than that the study shows a lack of objectivity in the books considered, and that many of the statements quoted would tend to arouse a hatred of the German people in the minds of children reading them, and a knowledge that such statements were made of them in foreign textbooks could not help but arouse a spirit of animosity in Germany.

Since the publication of the Carnegie Inquiry and the study made by the German History Teachers' Association, another report on nationalism in history textbooks has appeared. Under the joint auspices of the Universal Christian Conference on Life Work and the World Alliance for Promoting International Friendship Through the Churches, a study has been made of nationalism in history textbooks in use in the following countries: Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, England, Esthonia, Finland, France, Germany, Holland, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Norway, Poland, Sweden, and Switzerland. The report, in each case, was made by a citizen of the country concerned. This study, "Report on Nationalism in History Textbooks," was presented at the Universal Conference of Historians, which met at Oslo, August 15-18, 1928.

The report on German history textbooks (*Gutachten Über Die Deutschen Geschichtslehrbücher*) was made by Dr. Arnold Reimann, President of the German History Teachers' Association, and it has the indorsement of that organization. Dr. Reimann feels that the reputation which German history textbooks have of fostering nationalism and chauvinism is the result of war propaganda. Germany's enemies, he believes, picture her as a nation disarmed to all appearances, but not so in soul and spirit. They count upon the lack of information in other countries and the English and American mentality, which is so susceptible to all moral movements. In this manner they (Germany's enemies) hope "to discredit the Rhineland evacuation and the settlements of Locarno and Thoiry."<sup>7</sup>

The purpose of history teaching, according to Dr. Reimann, is to "teach children to understand the historical and present life, and also to teach them how we acquire knowledge ourselves, so that their knowledge is not dead when they cast aside their school bags, but is rather a basis for building a broader view of the world and life. But the point of view of life must naturally have a German orientation."<sup>8</sup>

The reason that the Germans wish to be free and strong and cherish their own civilization is because they believe that only as good Germans can their particular mission in this world join with the efforts of the entire world to promote international brotherhood. "True love of the Fatherland is the surest way to humanitarianism. Only one who loves his homeland and feels bound through ties of blood and experience can appreciate similar feelings in other people. Such a person is ready for thoughts of humanitarianism."<sup>9</sup>

Dr. Reimann grows impatient when foreigners criticize German history books because they are not written by true democrats. A partisan book is no standard for historical conceptions, and the great German past contains much that is invaluable to every democrat. Indeed, the strength of the German people and their leaders in the past has penetrated the men who have the new German state in hand. Dr. Reimann says, "As though democratic governments are more peace-loving than aristocratic or monarchistic governments! Were not the democratic Romans a conquering people; did not the democratic clique in Athens prolong the Peloponnesian War? The new investigators will rightly attach much importance to the aggressive character of American imperialism in the last period, and the French Republic has become as truly war-loving as any monarchy of the nineteenth century."<sup>10</sup>

History books would not dare to awaken a belief that particular parties are the real supporters of the national thoughts and desires. They do proclaim "loudly and clearly" that Germans must stand together and not quarrel over the form of the Constitution as long as they are not free and are a play-ball in the hands of strange powers. It is essential that the youths share a moderate feeling of union with the old State, and that they love and honor the past where the past was great. "The Hohenzollerns created Prussia; that is an historical commonplace. That gives them the lineage, but no claim to rule forever. Their right is forfeited; their time is past. With this reservation, we praise the work of the Great Elector, Frederick William I, and the great Frederick, and we must also praise them as the basis of the present-day Germany."<sup>11</sup> It is with these thoughts in mind, according to the German Report, that democracy is not exalted and monarchy decried, and monarchs of the past are honored, says Dr. Reimann, "only when they have been truly great."

The Report does not deny that there is a national feeling in Germany. It is frankly stated that the German loves his country as strongly as the French, and he has the desire to grow strong and great again, as the French after 1871. But he does not think of force, as to do so would be absurd. However, he does demand attention for his convictions and civilization and necessities of life, and he knows that he can only win this if he is morally strong and does not pursue abstract pacifism, which would enfeeble him and eliminate him as a political factor. The German demands equity and promotes the rule of intelligence.<sup>12</sup>

The Carnegie Inquiry severely criticized the attention given to wars in German history books. This is justified in the German Report because to omit wars would be unhistorical. "Events must be treated, even though they are regrettable." German history books are not pacifistic, according to the Report, in the sense that every war throughout history is contrary to and against the will of the Divine order of things. They show that the State, because of necessity for territory, strives to expand, and in this way nations

come into conflict with one another. Often similar interests and questions of national honor can find no solution other than an appeal to the sword. But they also teach that just as with individual relationships, so in international affairs, moral values compromise with the instinctive and tend to overcome the pure instinct of force. Mutual understandings, tolerance, and a feeling of the brotherhood of mankind must be promoted. Peaceful settlements must win over force, and there must be hope that in the future wars will be unknown. The German books do not foster a warlike tendency and a desire for revenge, as the French school books did after 1870. They consider it utopian to think that Germany could rise to power again through force. They trust in the power of the intellect and righteousness alone.<sup>13</sup>

The German Report indicates that the war guilt question must play an important rôle in their history textbooks. It says, "When the truth is to be found in scarcely any place in the school books in foreign countries, and when it makes such slow progress in the mind of the world, the German children cannot have it withheld from them."<sup>14</sup> "Montesquieu," says the Report, "wrote long ago: 'The real author of a war is not he who declares it, but rather he who makes it unavoidable.'" The Report continues: "The hands of Germany are clean, and no history book can state the matter otherwise." It is for this reason that the history books protest against the peace treaty which proclaimed Germany alone guilty and imposed upon her the responsibility for the war. They will not cease their appeal to the conscience of the world "until the moral disarmament on this point has begun on the other side."<sup>15</sup>

The conception of the League of Nations, the Report states, is hailed with joy in all school books, but its limitations must be revealed. It remains an objective which can only be reached step by step. An organization that is used as a veil to serve the interests of certain Great Powers and one which tolerates the slander of Germany through the "war guilt lie," and so unjustly handles the problem of the former German colonies, and tramples upon the interests of Germany, cannot be given unconditional praise.<sup>16</sup>

The Report says in conclusion that, compared with the school books of other lands, using the Bern thesis as a standard, German school books are unsurpassed in scientific spirit and objectivity. "The authors of German school books wish to serve the truth for their own people and mankind."<sup>17</sup>

The above material is a brief survey of the divisions of three important foreign publications which treat the subject of nationalism in German history textbooks. Below, I am giving the results of my own study in this field.

The results are based upon a study of the roots and immediate causes of the World War, a study of the German school system, visits to history classes in German schools, and an examination of fifteen history books covering the modern period, and a con-



sideration of the material in the three studies mentioned above.

The following books were examined:

1. Henche, A.: *Geschichte in Tatsachen*. Breslau: Ferdinand Hirt, 1925.
2. Maurer, A.: *Lehrbuch der Geschichte für die Oberstufe höherer Schulen*. Frankfurt am Main: Moritz Diesterweg, 1925.
3. Boelitz, Otto: *Das Grenz und Auslandsdeutschum, seine Geschichte und seine Bedeutung*. München und Berlin: R. Oldenbourg, 1926.
4. Groebe, Paul, und R. Volpers: *Lehrbuch der Geschichte für höhere Lehranstalten*. (Oberstufe, Teil IV.) Leipzig: Quelle und Meyer, 1926.
5. Reimann, Arnold: *Das Heldenbuch*. München und Berlin: R. Oldenbourg, 1926.
6. Groebe, P., und H. Becker: *Lehrbuch der Geschichte von der Französischen Revolution bis zur Gegenwart*. (Mittelstufe, Teil II.) Leipzig: Quelle und Meyer, 1927.
7. Schnabel, Franz: *Geschichte der neuesten Zeit*. Leipzig und Berlin: B. Teubner, 1927.
8. Wilmann, E.: *Deutsche Geschichte vom Wiener Kongress bis zur Gegenwart*. Leipzig und Berlin: B. Teubner, 1927.
9. Gehl, W.: *Geschichte für Mittelschulen, Viertes Heft*. Breslau: Ferdinand Hirt, 1928.
10. Gehl, W.: *Geschichte für sächsische höhere Lehranstalten*. Leipzig: Ferdinand Hirt (Mittelstufe, Heft 3, 4), 1928.
11. Gerstenberg, Kurt: *Die Neuzeit von 1648 bis zur Gegenwart*. München und Berlin: R. Oldenbourg, 1928.
12. Peters, Ulrich: *Handbuch des Unterrichts an höheren Schulen*. Frankfurt am Main: Moritz Diesterweg, 1928.
13. Wehrhan, Karl: *Lehrbuch der Geschichte für Mittelschulen*. (Aufgabe A, Teil IV), Frankfurt am Main: Moritz Diesterweg, 1928.
14. Schnabel, Franz: *Geschichte der neuesten Zeit* (Aufgabe C), Leipzig und Berlin: B. Teubner, 1929.
15. Lange, W.: *Deutsche Geschichte von der Befreiungskriege bis zur Gegenwart*. München, Berlin: R. Oldenbourg, 1928.

In a study of nationalism in the history textbooks of any country, one is constantly confronted with the fact that the term has a different connotation for different people. It is evident in the "Report on Nationalism in History Textbooks," which was presented at the Oslo meeting, that the contributors from the various nations did not have a mutual understanding of the term. Indeed, there is no common usage of the term within a single nation, as indicated by two prominent Danish professors who wrote in 1917. Professor Friis contends that there is not in the Danish schools "a form of teaching Danish history that can be called nationalistic. By the word 'nationalistic' we must, in this connection, mean something in the direction of 'chauvinistic,' an overestimation of ourselves, an one-sided and exaggerated praising of national virtues and merits, an underestimation of other nations, a biased judgment of our dealings with them."<sup>18</sup>

On the other hand, Professor Arup asserts that "our Danish school has stuck to a form of teaching Danish history which, in its fostering of a nationalistic spirit and upbringing, is on a level with that of any other country." He says, "I call that manner of teaching a country's history nationalistic that aims at rousing and strengthening national sentiment and consciousness in the pupils, not by showing the development of the people itself, but by emphasizing

its contrasts to some other people."<sup>19</sup> And Professor Carlton J. H. Hayes, of the United States, makes a distinction between the "original" nationalism of the eighteenth century and the "derived" nationalism of the twentieth.<sup>20</sup> Many other definitions might be given, but it is not necessary, as it is evident that the term does not have a meaning commonly accepted by all.

In this study I have thought best to examine the German history books listed above on those points which the Carnegie Inquiry considered, such as military history, monarchs, the Treaty of Versailles, the League of Nations, etc.

The material in five of the books examined may be classified under three headings:

	Political	Military	World War	Social and Economic
Groebe	127 pp.	48 pp.	29 pp.	17 pp.
Lange	143	40	21	38
Schnabel	114	31	20	7
Wehrhan	49	41	24	10
Wilmann	136	42	31	35

Without further analysis, it would appear that an undue amount of space is devoted to war, but in each case over 50 per cent. of this is a discussion of the World War, and much of this is devoted to a consideration of the causes, the condition of the people, and the Versailles treaty. However, all wars are treated from the German point of view. On the struggle against Napoleon, an author writes that "Prussia again took over the main work,"<sup>21</sup> and the battle of Belle-Alliance is called the battle of Waterloo by the English because they wish it to appear as their victory only, according to the same author.<sup>22</sup>

The War of 1870 was the result of the French desire for glory. "With proud satisfaction wrote a French government organ after the victory of the Crimea, 'The cannon that tore down the last battlements of Sebastopol resound throughout Europe.' " The French army had won glory and the word of France was, as the shots of their cannon, heard all over Europe. They soon sought opportunities to increase the prestige of France in the world.<sup>23</sup> One also reads that "the people were filled with boundless displeasure, and revenge for Sadowa remained the only solution. A new war developed."<sup>24</sup> The thought of a Hohenzollern on the throne of Spain "let the national rage in France flare up. Napoleon, although he himself did not wish war, was unable to withstand the will of the people....The Prince renounced the Spanish throne on July 12th. France had her satisfaction for her self-respect. Apparently Prussia had attempted to extend her influence to Spain, and she withdrew at the demands and threats of France. The Paris press rejoiced, 'Prussia Retires.' "<sup>25</sup>

The editing of the Ems' telegram by Bismarck is justified, "As the editor of a newspaper seeks to influence public opinion through the choice of news, so does the government. The instant French actions made war necessary, it was Bismarck's duty and right



so to guide the public opinion, that the people would go into a war known to be necessary as strong as possible." <sup>26</sup> The German generals and their armies displayed the greatest skill and valor in the war, and, as a result, "United, free, and powerful stood the Germans among the people of the world. At one time, in the wars of liberation, all of Europe had to unite to subdue France. Now, Germany accomplished this alone. Indestructible, so it appeared, the Empire rested upon the strength of the people." <sup>27</sup> The Treaty of Frankfurt returned to the Fatherland territory that had been taken from it previously. <sup>28</sup>

The "war guilt" clause of the Versailles treaty is not accepted. The main causes for the war as given in the textbooks are: jealousy because of Germany's increasing commerce, encirclement of Germany, French desire for revenge, the conflicting ambitions of Russia and Austria, and the stupidity of the German Foreign Office. "Germany," says Lange, "was without a real leader; it had no experience in foreign politics. What is more, William II, as his own chancellor, wanted to steer the new course *with full steam ahead*, but their political naiveness did not permit the Germans to know the great dangers, and so the dark forces of hate and fear could gradually undermine the proud work of the founder of the Empire." <sup>29</sup> And Wilmann says, "The unwise actions of Germany (at the Hague Conferences) stigmatized her as the known enemy of peace, a brutal power, and a conquering State, that through its militarism compelled all other people to defend themselves by preparing for war." <sup>30</sup> "But the German guilt is of a more tragic kind. It is rooted in her economic ascendancy and her increasing population. It is not necessary to conceal that a stupid policy placed Germany in a questionable position in the eyes of the world." <sup>31</sup>

The English guilt lies in the fact that the English "have the conviction that Divine Providence has chosen them to spread righteousness and morality among all mankind, and surely the grace of God is seen in the success of the English power. A large group of men, the historian Seeley, the poet Kipling, and the statesmen, such as Chamberlain and Rhodes, were filled with the conviction that out of "Great" Britain they would build a "Greater" Britain. With reckless skill these politicians began to make this belief a reality." <sup>32</sup> And the English *Saturday Review* is quoted: "If Germany were blotted out tomorrow, there is not an Englishman in the world who would not be better off the morning after." <sup>33</sup> "The guilt of England appears clearest in the encirclement policy of Edward VII." <sup>34</sup> Russia depended upon France and England to assist her in the achievement of her ambitions, and she had come to an understanding with them long before the war, and these with each other and Belgium. <sup>35</sup> France sought revenge and a recovery of her territory and prestige lost in the War of 1870.

But the German Government did err when it gave Austria a free hand. It "recognized the significance of the Serbian affair as a vital question for Austria-Hungary, and gave her an entirely free hand in

settling the affair of the murder of the Crown Prince. This unconditional promise of Germany, true to her alliance, was dangerous for her. Austria had a 'blank check' on Germany's military power and Germany placed herself in unnecessary and undeserving dependence upon the politics of Vienna." <sup>36</sup> And Serbia played the rôle of the firebrand in the hands of Russia. <sup>37</sup> Serbia was ruled by the passion for a greater Serbia, and the Serbia Government knew of the "plot," says Reimann. <sup>38</sup> But Wilmann says, "It was only possible to proceed against Serbia, if the Serbian State were guilty....The information as to the guilt of the State came later. The Austrian Government had no positive proof at hand." <sup>39</sup>

The United States entered the war because Americans had loaned large sums of money to the enemies of Germany and they had supplied the Entente with arms and munitions. "If Germany won, the money was as good as lost....The Americans wished to demand that even when only one of their countrymen was on a ship, the ship must be protected in the middle of the fighting zone. With equal right, they might have demanded the right to take a walk between the two firing lines on the front." <sup>40</sup>

The German Government did not want the war and William II and Bethmann-Hollweg joined with Grey in attempting to prevent it. Wehrhan, in his textbook, states that voices from abroad are proclaiming that Germany should not bear the war guilt alone. "Our principal English opponent, Lloyd George, had already said at the close of 1921 that the statesmen of Europe, through their blundering, brought on the war." <sup>41</sup>

The textbooks devote a great deal of space to a description of the battles of the war, and generals and soldiers are given much praise for their victories and their bravery. And, as Wehrhan says, "Especially proud were the German people of their submarines, with Otto Weddigen and other heroes as commanders. They did great damage to the English, so that for the first time in their history the English also felt the effect of war." <sup>42</sup> The general impression given is that the military power was not defeated. The defeat was caused by the revolution, and this was caused by the English blockade of food supplies. However, some books, such as Lange's, do state that on September 29, 1918, Ludendorff declared that he could no longer hold the front. <sup>43</sup>

The textbooks are unanimous in declaring the peace treaty unjust. "It is," says Wilmann, "the mirror of the objectives with which the Entente entered the war. No peace work was accomplished; brutal imperialistic policies divided the world in favor of the Entente." <sup>44</sup> "England," according to Wehrhan, "accomplished her war aim, the prostration of the German Empire. The German navy is destroyed; the world commerce of Germany is less than half of what it was before the war. Germany as a colonial power has disappeared. Because of gaining German and Turkish possessions, England has succeeded in making the Indian Ocean into an English world-sea, and

thus she has more certainly secured India, the source of her riches and power."<sup>45</sup>

The peace treaty dismembered Germany, robbed her, and made her a slave of her enemies, and Germany was forced to acknowledge the lie that she brought on the World War.<sup>46</sup> Gernstenberg declares that the League of Nations is supposed to be a neutral court for the settlement of international disputes, but, as a matter of fact, it is a weak assembly in the hands of France.<sup>47</sup> One reads that the United States did not enter the League because it was so far from what President Wilson had sought.<sup>48</sup> But other authors are more optimistic. Groebe hopes that with the entry of Germany a change will take place and that the League will know no other object than the welfare, justice, and peace of the world.<sup>49</sup> Lange sees the League as a young plant, which must have time in which to develop into a strong tree, the sole work of which shall be to serve peace.<sup>50</sup>

The Carnegie Inquiry found that German history textbooks failed to emphasize the true greatness of Germany in the fields of art, philosophy, music, and industry. This is true of many of the books included in this study, as can be seen from the space allotment in some of the books given above. One cannot help but conclude that too much space is devoted to Bismarck and his policy of "blood and iron" for securing administrative unification, at the expense of those men who were prominent in securing the economic unification of Germany, such as Thaer, Liebig, Maassen, Motz List, and Von Siemens. It is also true that the great artists, philosophers, scientists, and musicians receive little attention. But there are books, such as Walther Lange's *Deutsche Geschichte*, which treat the social and economic history in a highly commendable manner.

Criticism was also made in the Carnegie Inquiry that German textbooks conveyed little information concerning people of other countries. A reasonable space is devoted to foreign lands in the books considered in this study, but the material given is not always the type that would make for a better understanding of them.

It would seem that some authors are somewhat immodest in their praise of German people. For example, Boelitz states, "For her ascendancy in the realm of industry and technical arts, America thanks German knowledge and skill a thousand times....If one were to strike out of the history of the Union what they owe to German influence, what remained would be poor."<sup>51</sup> It must be rather disconcerting to those who seek to develop 100 per cent. Americans to read, "We are prouder of the strong German spirit of those German citizens who, notwithstanding their loyalty to the State to which they have sworn allegiance, have remained in their inner allegiance German in speech and custom."<sup>52</sup>

The new form government is presented by most of the authors considered as the natural result of the developmental process in German history. A desire for democracy is deeply rooted in the German past, they say. There is no great praise of the demo-

cratic form of government; neither is there adverse criticism of it. Some books do leave one with the impression that it was President Wilson's refusal to treat with the Imperial German Government which caused the Kaiser to abdicate, but the German youth is always urged to support the new Republic.

#### CONCLUSIONS

The criticism of the Carnegie Inquiry, which was made by the German History Teachers' Association, is a valid one. In 1921, the passions of war were still blinding men to the truth, and too little was known about the causes of the war. It is certain that if the *Enqueté* were prepared in 1929, it would not criticize German history textbooks for protesting against the war guilt clause in the Treaty of Versailles.

German history textbooks do contain more facts concerning the origin of the war than do those English and American textbooks which I have examined. But it is possible to present the facts without leaving a correct impression. It is not true that Germany's hands are "clean," as stated in Dr. Reimann's report at the Oslo meeting. Germany must, with other nations, bear her share in the responsibility for bringing on the war. The German foreign policy was stupid, it is true, but this cannot relieve Germany of all responsibility, and it is wrong to give this impression to German children.

Wars have played an important rôle in German history, and they must, therefore, be treated in the history textbooks. It is not the function of history textbooks in any country to "war against war" in general, but German books are written too much from the German point of view. It is unfortunate that German boys and girls are taught that the United States entered the war solely because Americans would have lost money had the Germans won, or because Americans wished to be protected when they traveled in the war zone. There were additional motives, more idealistic, though possibly less practical than these which prompted millions of Americans to fight, and for purposes of understanding Americans it would be well for German children to know this.

The League of Nations is not a perfect organization, and German authors do point out its imperfections. They do indicate also that much good is to be expected of it in the future. It would be well, also, to point out the achievements of this organization to date, as well as its shortcomings, but we must not expect history in the schools of any country to be League-of-Nationized. It is not the function of history to preach any cause, no matter how noble it may be.

If German textbook writers were less dominated by the notion that history for German children must have a strictly German orientation, German boys and girls would be more likely to develop a world point of view. Their ambition to hold the allegiance of Germans who emigrate and become citizens of other countries is difficult for Americans to understand, but we must remember that for an American to be-

come a citizen of another country is almost the equivalent of a public scandal.

It would be well for those who would criticize German histories for failure to give unqualified praise of democracy to remember that, as Dr. Reimann points out in his report, democracies are not perfection, but one could rightly expect German history books to indicate the advantages a democracy has over a monarchy, as well as the disadvantages. In this respect, the error is one of omission.

However, if one learns to do by doing, certainly the boys and girls in the German schools which I visited were experiencing democracy; in some cases, too much of it. There is a delightful spirit of freedom and equality and comradeship which exists among the pupils and teachers. There is more formality in the schools of the *Gymnasium* type, but the spirit of freedom, sympathy, and understanding is there, and I have never observed a history class in this country that was taught as well as those I saw in the schools of this type in Germany. Some of the other schools were using the *Gesampt Unterricht* method of instruction, which corresponds to the unification idea in our country. This, of course, prevents history instruction from serving its true purpose.

Professor Sydney B. Fay concludes that the Versailles treaty was a dictum exacted by victors from vanquished, under the influence of blindness, ignorance, hatred, and propagandist misconceptions. If one were to expect no nationalism to appear in German history textbooks under such circumstances, one would be expecting what the world has not yet experienced. A knowledge that, notwithstanding the fact that the most capable historical scholars in the world hold the Versailles treaty no longer tenable or defensible, history textbooks in other countries are still upholding it to boys and girls, must be expected to result in a nationalistic reaction in the history textbooks of Germany.<sup>53</sup>

There is much nationalism in the history textbooks which I have examined, "original" nationalism of the type which demands the union of German-Austria and the Reich and "derived" nationalism which demands German overseas expansion.

It must be remembered that the study given above has serious limitations. Only a few German textbooks were examined, visits were only made to schools in Prussia, and translations at best do not always convey the meaning which is in the author's mind. It is also true that the teacher and not the textbook is the important factor in history teaching in Germany.

<sup>1</sup> Gooch, *History and Historians in the Nineteenth Century*, pp. 147, 150.

<sup>2</sup> Treitschke, *History of Germany in the Nineteenth Century*, Vol. V, p. 611.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, Vol. VI, p. 642.

<sup>4</sup> Gooch, *op. cit.*, pp. 101, 102.

<sup>5</sup> Pinnow, *Deutschland im Lichte ausländischer Schulbücher*, pp. 9, 10.

<sup>6</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 69-71.

<sup>7</sup> Reimann, *Gutachten Über Die Deutschen Geschichtslehrbücher*, p. 1.

<sup>8</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 2.

<sup>9</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 7, 8.

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 52.

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 58.

<sup>12</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 60.

<sup>13</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 62, 63.

<sup>14</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 65.

<sup>15</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 67.

<sup>16</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 68, 69.

<sup>17</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 77.

<sup>18</sup> Rosendal, *Report on Nationalism in History Textbooks (Denmark)*, p. 89.

<sup>19</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 90.

<sup>20</sup> Hayes, "Original" and "Derived" Nationalism, *Proceedings of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland*, 1928, pp. 70-83.

<sup>21</sup> Reimann, *Das Heldenbuch*, p. 118.

<sup>22</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 119.

<sup>23</sup> Wilmann, *Deutsche Geschichte vom Wiener Kongress bis zur Gegenwart*, p. 59.

<sup>24</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 83.

<sup>25</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 83, 84.

<sup>26</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 86.

<sup>27</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 97.

<sup>28</sup> Lange, *Deutsche Geschichte von der Beendigung der Befreiungskriege bis zur Gegenwart*, p. 100.

<sup>29</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 161.

<sup>30</sup> Wilmann, *op. cit.*, p. 165.

<sup>31</sup> Peters, *Handbuch des Unterrichts an höheren Schulen*, p. 209.

<sup>32</sup> Wilmann, *op. cit.*, p. 153.

<sup>33</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 149, 150.

<sup>34</sup> Peters, *op. cit.*, p. 209.

<sup>35</sup> Reimann, *op. cit.*, p. 137.

<sup>36</sup> Lange, *op. cit.*, p. 173.

<sup>37</sup> Wilmann, *op. cit.*, p. 174.

<sup>38</sup> Reimann, *op. cit.*, p. 136.

<sup>39</sup> Wilmann, *op. cit.*, pp. 175, 176.

<sup>40</sup> Reimann, *op. cit.*, p. 146.

<sup>41</sup> Wehrhan, *Lehrbuch der Geschichte für Mittelschulen*, p. 88.

<sup>42</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 79.

<sup>43</sup> Lange, *op. cit.*, p. 200.

<sup>44</sup> Wilmann, *op. cit.*, p. 202.

<sup>45</sup> Wehrhan, *op. cit.*, p. 97.

<sup>46</sup> Schnabel, *Geschichte der neuesten Zeit*, p. 125.

<sup>47</sup> Gerstenberg, *Die Neuzeit von 1648 bis zur Gegenwart*, p. 106.

<sup>48</sup> Gehl, *Geschichte für Mittelschulen*, p. 48.

<sup>49</sup> Groebe, *Lehrbuch der Geschichte für höhere Lehranstalten*, p. 190.

<sup>50</sup> Lange, *op. cit.*, p. 226.

<sup>51</sup> Boelitz, *Das Grenz und Auslandsdeutschum*, p. 135.

<sup>52</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 135.

<sup>53</sup> Fay, *The Origins of the World War*, Vol. II, p. 549.

"Pan-American Peace" is the subject of an article by Chief Justice Hughes in the summer number of the *Yale Review*. In commenting on the Kellogg Anti-War Treaty, he calls attention to the fact that this treaty itself is a witness of the fact that opportunities for direct diplomatic negotiations between the parties to an international dispute, essential as these opportunities are, give no satisfactory security against war. It is the breakdown of ordinary diplomatic procedure that presages strife and the pledge to resort to pacific means contemplates that emergency. It implies the obligation to provide the mechanisms which will facilitate peaceful settlement when direct diplomatic exchanges have failed. Pacific means as a remedy for the ills of war must be preventive medicine. The promise to seek peaceful settlements is a barren form of words, unless it embraces the establishment and the use of facilities of conciliation and arbitration. To that undertaking our government must be deemed to be committed.



# Historical Research in Colleges<sup>\*</sup>

BY PROFESSOR ROY F. NICHOLS, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

The Committee on Research in Colleges has in its province the consideration of some of the most important problems connected with American History. In the first place, there is the problem of aiding and of increasing the research activities of those teaching history in institutions where there are no graduate departments. To this problem the committee owes its origin, for in 1921 Professor W. K. Boyd submitted a memorandum to the council of the Association suggesting the advisability of such a committee. This memorandum was favorably reported on to the council by a subcommittee, headed by Professor C. J. H. Hayes, appointed to study the proposal, and at the annual meeting for 1921 the committee was authorized and appointed.

Closely allied with this problem is a second one, which has more recently intrigued the interest of the Association, namely, the fact that so few who obtain the degree of doctor of philosophy ever produce anything more than the necessary thesis; a question which led to a survey by Professor Jernegan, the interesting results of which were published in the *American Historical Review*.

A third problem, which may well come within the scope of this committee's activities, is that of the collection and use of data for the History of the United States. This, of course, is looking at the situation from the standpoint of one interested in American History, rather than European. I am going to admit that bias frankly and confine myself to illustrations drawn from the history of the United States, as the problem of aids to research in European History deserves a paper by itself. As far as American History is concerned, then, we are confronted with the problem of mobilization. It is safe to say, I believe, that we know relatively little about American History. Some phases of it, such as the colonial period, our military achievements, and national politics, have well-nigh monopolized attention. But the greatest phenomenon of the history of this Republic has been its growth; from thirteen colonies we have expanded to forty-eight States. Consequently, the history of our development has been scattered over a wide area, and in our present state of demobilization the problem of proper synthesis of American History has gotten beyond us. So much has happened in so many places that we are lost, and must perforce struggle to build up the structure of American History from fragments discovered here and there. This problem of mobilization, which is well within the province of this committee as a convenient method for stimulating historical research, resolves itself into a consideration again of the importance of local history.

I am conscious of the fact that when entering upon a discussion of the value of local history I am starting nothing new. Professor Turner and many others before and since have seen its value, but the question is by no means closed. How can we write of the economic history of the United States until we know the facts about the economic evolution of the States? How can we write an accurate political history of the country if we do not study the political history of the States? Many a potentially productive scholar has been destroyed by a too ambitious subject, upon which he has worked and worked until overcome by its enormity. Had he chosen a more practical problem, oblivion might not have overtaken him. Also, in regard to Ph.D. dissertations, in some circles, at least, local topics are frowned upon as not sufficiently important, and the candidates, too, have the secret hope of astounding the world with their product. Yet local history is a field which cries for expert handling. Some years ago Professor Dixon Ryan Fox published an article in the *Political Science Quarterly*, in which he reviewed the condition of State history, and found that there were very few adequate State histories. He found that there generally were State historical societies, but that their work was very uneven in quantity and quality; a survey made today would demonstrate much the same thing. For instance, in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, there is a Historical Commission under the Department of Public Instruction and at least seventy-five historical societies throughout the State formed into a loose federation which, however, meets but once annually and does not function actively. Considerable work is being done, but without much plan or general purpose. Scholars have passed by this field and have left it to those whose interest generally transcends their training. Consequently, this committee has before it the possibility of promoting a wide field with material at every hand.

In pursuing its objective then, and in contributing to the solution of these subsidiary problems, the committee has a wide field of possible activity. Let us consider briefly some proposals which might be undertaken. One of the first is the question of a research guide. If research in colleges is to be stimulated, one of the means is the proposal of definite projects. But who knows what is to be done? Has there ever been any systematic effort to lay out the work? What subjects ought to be worked up immediately to advance our knowledge? Are there in various places promising materials which only need some student to exploit them? A student in the graduate school is usually assigned a subject, but for the many college teachers who are not in touch with graduate schools there is the possibility, at least, if they had something suggested to them in their local-

<sup>\*</sup> Read at Conference on Research in Colleges at meeting of American Historical Association, 1928.



ity, that results might be arrived at. This idea, then, suggests some plan for a survey of the research possibilities of the nation which might result in a research handbook or *vade mecum*. This work might include a statement of the research possibilities in each State containing an analysis of what has been done towards developing the historical field in that locality, dealing with some things which most need to be done, and particularly setting forth the material which is most available. This would serve as an excellent guide for any one undertaking research. If there are no funds available for printing such a book, the material might be collected through questionnaires and other co-operative devices and the results kept by the committee in their files. They would then be in the possession of a body of knowledge which would be useful to them for their project, and might ultimately prove a valuable part of the archives of the Association. The committee have already sent out questionnaires and have in their files some knowledge at least of the research situation. For instance, there is considerable need for a continuation of the "Bibliography of American Historical Societies," which was published in 1907 and is now sadly out of date. Also, the handbook of American Historical Societies which we now have, while of considerable value, is to some extent incomplete; for instance, there are at least seventy-five historical societies in Pennsylvania, and this handbook mentions but two. Then, there is the fact that there are numerous private collections, hidden or little known, which would be of considerable value to historical students, and the location of which might be made public in such a handbook. For instance, in the vicinity of Philadelphia, at the Philosophical Society, the Mercantile Library, and the University of Pennsylvania, there are manuscript and pamphlet materials that ought to be noted somewhere, for they are now very little known among historical students. Finally, there are a number of co-operative works at the present time under preparation which would be of considerable value to the historical profession and in which this committee might usefully co-operate. To mention but two, Dr. Richardson is actively pushing Project B in the Library of Congress, which will provide considerable valuable bibliographical material by describing the resources of various libraries throughout the country. J. T. Gerould, Librarian at Princeton, is working on a union list of manuscript materials throughout the country which would, of course, aid particularly the historical student. In other words, the committee has before it a very definite project of charting the research fields in the United States. One such project has already been proposed. Dr. Tyler Dennett, of the State Department, reported to the 1927 meeting of the Association the possibility of making such a chart in the field of American diplomatic history, dividing the whole subject into convenient topics and describing what had been done and what might be done, so that those interested in entering the field or continuing in it might have first-hand knowledge of the situation. In fact,

it might be well for the Association to assume the functions of an Academy of National History and prepare a general plan for the history of the United States. An elaborate scheme of topics might be laid down by the Association as a standard of what we consider an adequate exploitation of the nation's history. This would be arranged in such fashion that its topics and subdivisions would serve as suggestions for possible research. This plan would set a definite goal. Now the situation is, of course, that we are a large group of independent workers with seemingly rather indefinite ideas of co-operation or general objective.

Having considered the project of charting the field in the manner suggested, another possibility for action presents itself, namely, the problem of mobilizing effort. Only those of us who have had to investigate the situation know how much interest and effort in the field of American History is being expended and how much of it is blindly and aimlessly wandering. For instance, to use but one example: in Pennsylvania there are several universities, nearly two score colleges, several state normal colleges, at least seventy-five historical societies, a State Federation of Historical Societies, a Historical Commission supported by the State, and a number of first-class high schools. All of these agencies either maintain history departments or promote historical activity in some way without the productive results which such an expenditure of effort might warrant. This situation could be duplicated in other States and worse conditions cited in which, instead of having too much activity, there is not enough. Now, it is not my point to propose that this committee undertake the solution of the problem, but I do think that they might well consider the possibility of encouraging mobilizing agencies and interinstitutional co-operation. First of all in this respect, there is the question of quickening the interest of the university faculties. A university is one of the natural centers for any scholarly activity, and the importance of their history departments as agents in furthering research cannot be overemphasized. How many of them are attempting to develop organization and creative enterprise in their localities? The University of X has a large department of 30 people, a little group in itself, oftentimes self-sufficient, its personnel supply to each other the necessary contacts and inspiration, but the college of Y, with its one-man department; the college of Z, with its professor of history and his assistant; the college of A, off in another portion of the State—all these do not have contacts with the others, do not develop the resourcefulness and activity which they might if they had some organization. In some places more or less formal organization has been developed. In one State the historians meet two or three times a year at informal gatherings; this State, by the way, has one of the best-covered historical fields. In other States the large universities have naturally numerous contacts in the neighboring colleges, a number of the professors are Ph.D.'s of the universities. They come in for classes, for advice, to discuss research problems, and the location of material. These universities

have become centers, and, without any particular organization or conscious purpose, have developed leadership among the colleges in their vicinities. But how common is this form of endeavor in the various States? What are the possibilities of such university leadership? It is a question that seems legitimate for this committee to consider and report upon; the idea is one which has possibilities of extension. A series of university institutes might be considered, or, if such formality is undesirable, means might be developed whereby the committee work through university history departments which already have wide connections or are willing to assume them. Further than this, co-operation might be developed between history professors and historical societies. To cite another example a member of one of the university faculties in Pennsylvania is conducting a survey of the historical needs of the State which will not only go back to the executives of these societies, but also go before the State Historical Commission for its consideration. Thus, three forms of historical endeavor are being brought together temporarily, at least. More work of this type would lead to more coherent results and we might hold up as an ideal a series of State histories of the excellence of the Centennial History of the State of Illinois.

Having charted the field and studied the problem of establishing advisory centers and subcommittees, the committee has still its main objective to consider, namely, how to utilize the machinery and get the work done. The committee has already surveyed partially at least the possibilities; they have in their files the names and interests of the college history men. But there remains the most vital and the most difficult question of all, namely, to get those that are not working to work. I presume the best way is by the suggestion of specific projects.

If the committee has some general plan which it can circulate and then invite various individuals to co-operate in it and work up portions of it from materials easily available and collaboration with others, then this plan would give stimulus of suggestion and competition. One of the chief reasons for lack of productivity on the part of college teachers is in many cases the enforced isolation; there is no real contact with the rest of the historical world, individuals build up a series of local contacts which are

generally not connected with historical research. If lines of communication could be opened up locally, if projects for local history could be stimulated, interest would be renewed. If the value of local historical work could be better recognized, more people would want to work in these fields, for then there would be greater incentive. Writing so often depends upon the conviction on the part of the writer that his subject is worth while. If local history were advertised and exploited at its true worth under the auspices of the Association, and if the location and nature of the materials were catalogued, the determination to do research would be combined with a new sense of value and possibility of local work which would not only stimulate more productivity, but would also awaken a new zeal for the collection and preservation of material, a new interest in the work of local organizations, and more co-operation between professors and historical societies. Any quickening of interest of this nature would be communicated to undergraduates, who in turn might become more interested in history.

In conclusion, I would like to avoid the impression that these proposals for a research guide, for a comprehensive plan for American History, for university or local historical institutions, are impractical from the standpoint of a committee of five with many other duties. Charting the field of research, mobilizing agencies to assist in the committee's project, and then getting the unproductive to produce, these are, indeed, difficult tasks. But this is the day of projects. It seems to be a fact that more money is being made available each year by various foundations and committees to carry out definite projects. Consequently, the most valuable form of endeavor which this committee can pursue is to plan some project or projects based upon a study of the situation, to make a report to the Association in definite terms, setting forth specific things which would aid in solving the important problem for which as a committee they were created. With this report then in the Association's hands, the means to carry it out may not be so difficult to obtain. For, as I heard one of considerable experience in these matters say, a few days ago, "If a good plan is presented, money generally can be found to carry it out."

## Teaching College Freshmen to Study History

BY PROFESSOR CHARLES ROGER HICKS, UNIVERSITY OF NEVADA

In the days not so far behind the year of our Lord in which this feeble voice is raised, in those pre-professionally pedagogic days before ever the light had descended upon the upturned faces of expectant novices in the field of education—inspiring them with supernatural zeal to go throughout the world and preach the gospel of statistics, questionnaires, study

plans, methodology, and the necessity of coddling the college freshman—success in teaching history was admitted to depend chiefly on the personal enthusiasms, charms, and erudition of the instructor; while success in studying history depended on the liberal use of common sense and due diligence on the part of the student.

But those good old days, so recently departed, have been completely relegated to an oblivion so deep that the ideal modern college teacher crosses his heart and hopes to die if he ever so much as remembers them; and, with those days, passed the notion that, fundamentally—plan or no plan, methodology or no methodology—successful teaching might involve the factors noted above. With those days also passed the notion that success in studying history resulted chiefly from hard work on the part of the student.

So, today, special courses are arranged for freshmen samplers of history, which are likely to appeal strongly both to lower and upper classmen as "snap" courses, in which the initiative of the bull-throwing artist may be seen at its best.

But, after experiencing a freshman year in one college, and upper class and graduate student years in three universities; after viewing college life from the angle of instructor in three universities, the humble though protesting writer feels inclined hesitantly to proclaim anew an old conviction, viz., that he who works best succeeds best and profits most; that without work no one can "get by" for very long; and that all advice to freshmen students of history is as pearls before swine—unless and until the student gets into his head the one requisite and essential concept that he must work, work, work, and use his common sense.

Not that the writer sets himself up as infallible! He speaks only from his own experience. He had very little aid in matters methodological, as the term is understood by the ultra-moderns; but he experienced no difficulty as a student. Just a little trial and error, just a lot of hard work; and he found himself. And so did his fellows find themselves. Those who fell by the wayside were those only who hesitated—to work. As a teacher or "reader" responsible for giving suggestions to students, he found the self-same truth self-evident; and when students came, or come, to him for advice as to how to save their lives as historical students from failure, one kind of advice—if followed in time—has never failed to save the dear things from the necessity of unduly extending their Christmas or other vacations, viz., "try working."

"But, my dear sir," says the twentieth-century pedagogue of the second quartile, "your experience has been only with historical students who have had no modern methodological or other scientific aids!"

"Now, there you are wrong," says the scribe; for in his uneventful career he has advised, in a great and thronged university, historical students who had had just such careful preparation—and who must have passed their freshman year before they could enter a history class. He has advised students in another university who had no "modern" help at all, and who represented all four college years. He has advised students in still another university who were required to take history as freshmen; and to whom he regularly devoted the better part of the first three weeks telling them how to study history under him, and under other folks.

In all cases the secret of success has been found, and is found, to lie in *work*; and in the last situation indicated in the preceding paragraph the writer's yearly experience has been that the advice goes in at one ear of the student and out of the other. It requires for many students a few hard knocks, a few "flunks"; it requires the danger of failure to "make" the sorority or the fraternity or the football team to bring them down to the cruel conclusion that a considerable amount of work is essential, if they desire to pass with credit from the portals of the classroom presided over by this or any other bewhiskered old fogey.

More to the point are the writer's contentions as to the primal necessity of work, when it is remembered that the majority of college students are not out to make scholars of themselves; but are out to make the team, or the secret avenue to social distinction—the society, with the lowest scholastic average possible.

Most of the schemes evolved to aid the struggling freshmen are predicated on the supposition that the students, uninfluenced by advice from upper classmen and parents, are feverishly anxious to make a scholastic success of college life; whereas, they are not.

To be sure, college instructors are said—by the pedagogues who specialize in elementary or secondary problems—to be the worst teachers in the world; possibly so. At any rate, it may safely be said that the elementary and secondary schools conspicuously fail in developing in their students two prime requisites to success in the studying of history: They fail to inculcate in the minds of their pupils the fact of the necessity of work; and they fail to develop in their pupils any adequate sense of responsibility. And, without these two elements in their mental equipment, the secondary school students who go to college are lost—unless they readily acquire them. All the lectures, advice, and discussion in the world cannot impart these essentials to the students who need them.

Only hard knocks can bring the majority of first-year students to accept work and responsibility; and these are the students for whom the special courses for freshmen are supposed to be of most service. Other students can very well get along without such courses.

"If this be treason, make the most of it."

Now, after all this talk and insinuation about work, the question might fairly be asked if the writer succeeds in luring the careless and indifferent student of history to the act. The word "luring" is used advisedly; for the modern educational specialist wants to lure the student to do this or that.

The answer is, he cannot. He tries; and there it ends. He once flattered himself that he could lure a few; but he discovered that the luring was done by the subject, rather than by the instructor. The instructor may aid the process somewhat by a clever or dogmatic presentation; but his subject is at the bottom of any success. And there are only a choice



few who feel the lure of the subject; for most freshmen are lured by other things too strongly to be susceptible to the lure of history.

Ask the writer if he succeeds in getting good work out of most students in his classes; and he can answer in the affirmative. How does he do it? By demanding good work, and by "flunking" the laggards until he gets it. He gets good work done in elective as well as in required courses; and in the one university, where the retention of his job depended on his popularity among his students, he followed this policy—and retained his job. Students like an instructor who is of a genuinely friendly disposition, who is square in his dealings with students, who demands only what is reasonable, and who sees to it that his demands are met.

This general policy holds for freshman history, however the course is conducted. It holds for any history.

But what method does the writer follow? He is not partial to any procedure; he seldom repeats the same method; he continually adapts himself to his students; sometimes he lectures (horrors!), and sometimes he lets the students lecture; sometimes he asks

for reports; and sometimes he tries to develop a history course by means of discussion. But discussion in undergraduate history classes, as far as a proper definition of that word is concerned, seems generally but a high-sounding name for the time-honored question-and-answer method—which is an abomination before the Lord. In small classes the writer allows much freedom, both to himself and to his students; but, in classes of from twenty upward, he is more formal, he lectures a great deal, and holds the students responsible for certain aspects of subjects not covered in class.

But, whatever the method of presentation, he requires good work as evidenced by the results of frequent written examinations which—whatever their type—must be representative and fair, yet difficult enough to stimulate increasing efficiency.

Work, then, is the grand secret for success in studying history; and in doing the work required the student learns to bear responsibility. No elaborate schemes can obviate the necessity for work nor shift the responsibility for it from the shoulders of the student to the shoulders of the instructor.

## Teaching the Alliances and International Relations, 1871-1914

BY ROGER C. HACKETT, BOSSE HIGH SCHOOL, EVANSVILLE, INDIANA

It is now commonly accepted, among historians, at least, that no one country was entirely, or even chiefly, responsible for the World War. It is also generally accepted that one of the fundamental causes of the war was the pernicious system of alliances, agreements, and "understandings" which followed the Franco-Prussian War, and which turned Europe into two armed camps—and often into two *alarmed* camps—for nearly a half century.

Generally speaking, high school students still have the preconceived idea that Germany, after forty years of preparation for *der Tag*, deliberately provoked the war with the intention of conquering and Teutonizing the whole world. Very often they get their ideas from their parents, many of whom are living examples of the effectiveness of the work of Mr. George Creel. To help dissipate such mythical ideas of the origin of the war the accompanying chart has been prepared. It is intended to show graphically the nature of the relations existing between the great powers and the smaller States which were involved in their calculations between 1871 and 1914. The key sufficiently explains the meanings to be attached to the connecting lines. The dates on these lines indicate the years when treaties were entered into or when "understandings" became effective. A date in parenthesis indicates the termination of a treaty or understanding.

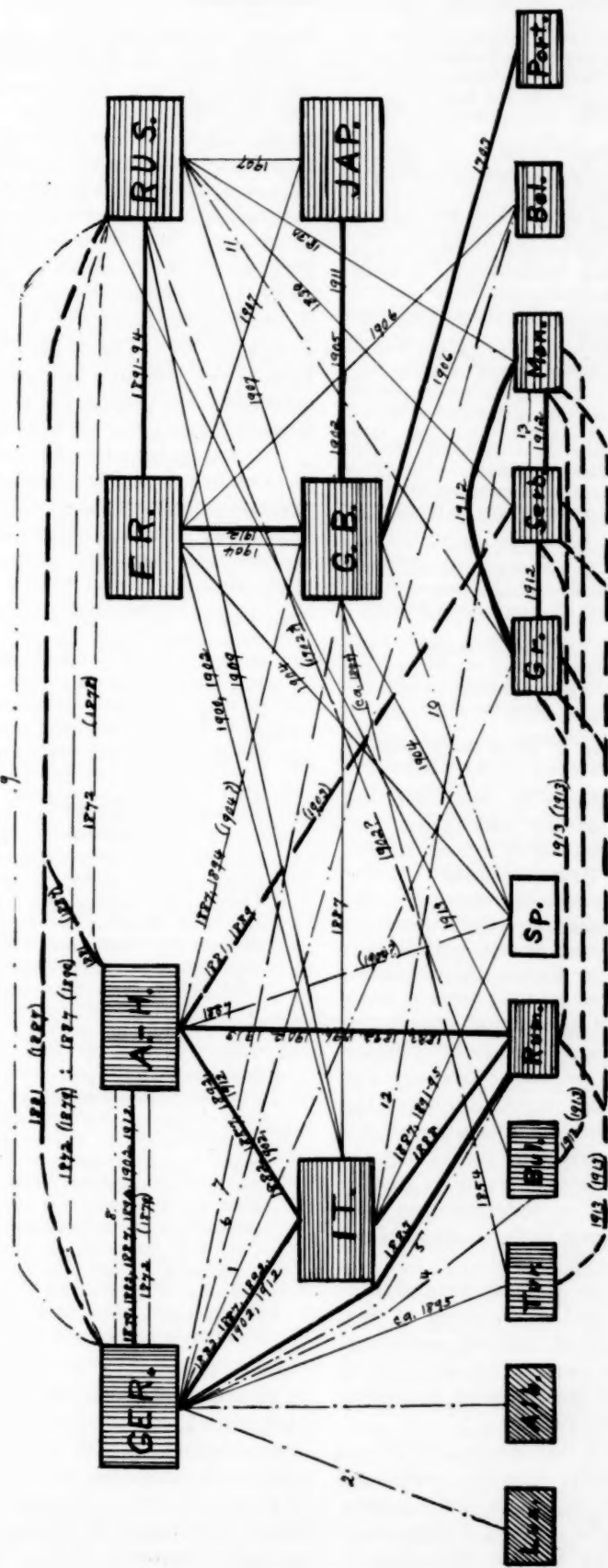
It is unnecessary to cite authorities for the statements implied in the chart. The works of such specialists in recent international relations, as Barnes, Dickinson, Gooch, and Fay, will attest to their valid-

ity. However, it may be well to explain certain relationships in more detail. In the first place, the dynastic connections deserve consideration, for it is undeniable that they often exerted powerful influence, even in parliamentary countries. Of course, all the European royal families are more or less closely connected—a natural result of the rule that royalty must marry royalty. For reference convenience the relationships traced on the chart by the numbered lines are explained hereunder, together with some comment thereon:

1. Germany-Greece. Sophia, the sister of William II (1888-1918), married Constantine, who acceded to the throne of Greece in 1913. She exercised considerable influence on the king in favor of her native land.
2. Germany-Luxemburg. Adolph of Nassau became Grand Duke of Luxemburg in 1890, when the Salic Law prevented Wilhelmina of the Netherlands from becoming the sovereign of the tiny State. Adolph owed his crown largely to Bismarck, who had deprived him of his German duchy after the Austro-Prussian War. He was properly grateful. His successors (William, 1905-1912, and Marie Adelaide, 1912-1919) continued to be favorably disposed toward Germany.
3. Germany-Albania. Prince William of Wied was elected to the newly created Albanian throne in 1913 by the powers. Finding himself unable to cope with his unruly mountaineers, he returned to Germany shortly after the outbreak of the World War.
4. Germany-Bulgaria. Both Bulgar rulers, prior to the war, were German princes—Alexander of Battenberg (1879-1886) and Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha (1887-1918).
5. Germany-Rumania. Charles I (1866-1914) was of the Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen family; his queen,

Diagrammatic Representation of the Alliances and International Relations, 1871-1914

TRIPLE ALLIANCE



KEY

- Alliance existing in 1914
- - - Alliance terminated before 1914
- Entente or "understanding" existing in 1914
- Entente or "understanding" terminated before 1914
- Dynastic connection

- ☐ "Allies" in World War
- ☐ Central Powers
- ☐ Neutral
- ☐ Invaded but not in war officially

Elizabeth of Wied, was also a German. Their son, Ferdinand, was also married to a German princess, Marie of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. Charles remained faithful to his native country to the last, and, had he lived, he might conceivably have altered the course of events.

6. Germany-Belgium. Albert (1909- ) married Elizabeth of Bavaria, who proved herself thoroughly loyal to her adopted land.
7. Germany-Great Britain. Queen Victoria's Prince Consort was Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. Their daughter, Victoria, married Frederick III, the hundred-day German emperor. However, the relationship existing between their son, the Emperor William II, and his uncle and cousin, Edward VII and George V, was never cordial.
8. Germany-Austria-Hungary. Francis Joseph I married Elizabeth, a cousin of Maximilian of Bavaria.
9. Germany-Russia. All the Russian czars since Catherine the Great married German princesses with the exception of Alexander III, whose queen was from Denmark. Catherine herself was a German. Nicholas II (1894-1917) married Alexandra, a sister of the Grand Duke of Hesse. She undoubtedly exercised great influence over the czar to the detriment of Russia.
10. Great Britain-Spain. Alfonso XIII (1885- ) married Victoria Eugenie of Battenberg, a niece of Edward VII. Her father, son-in-law of Queen Victoria, became a British army officer, despite the fact that his family was German.
11. Russia-Greece. George I (1863-1913) married Olga, niece of Alexander II of Russia.
12. Italy-Montenegro. Victor Emmanuel III (1900- ) married Helena, daughter of Nicholas I of Montenegro (1860-1918).
13. Serbia-Montenegro. Peter I (1903-1921) married Zorka, first cousin of Nicholas I of Montenegro.

In the second place, it should be noted that not all "understandings" were of the same type. Indeed, not all of them were embodied in formal treaties. For example, the Franco-British-Belgian "understanding" of 1906 rested on nothing more than the famous "conversations" carried on in that year by military representatives of these States, with a view toward joint action in case of German aggression—conversations greatly exploited by the Germans later. Community of blood, as well as aggrandizement ambitions, explains Russia's close interest in the Balkans and her protectorship over the Slavic States. The Turko-German understanding, which followed the ending of the traditional British influence over the Sublime Porte after the Congress of Berlin and the Armenian massacres of the 1890s, verged on an alliance. Likewise did the Italian understanding with France, which really ran counter to the Italian obligations under the Triple Alliance treaties.

All of these understandings, at least, implied neutrality under certain conditions in the event of war. Some went further and implied military assistance. Many of them provided for territorial readjustments in the event the *status quo* was violated in certain regions, notably the Turkish Empire.

It may be well to note here that inasmuch as Great Britain was, after 1912, rather definitely committed to naval assistance to France in certain contingencies, it seems fair to state that the original *Entente Cordiale* had become an alliance by that year, despite

Grey's cherished idea that Britain's hands were free.

The formal alliance, as well as the understandings and *ententes*, vary widely in their terms and origins. The fact that many of them only ran for five years or so, and then were frequently renewed only after considerable diplomatic sparring, is evidence of this. Especially was this true in the Triple Alliance, where each member was under different obligations to each of its allies. The Austro-Serbian alliance rested on the personal subservience of the Obrenovitch dynasty to the Dual Monarchy, and, hence, was abruptly terminated on the murder of King Alexander and Queen Draga in 1903. The Anglo-Portuguese alliance dated back to the War of the Spanish Succession, but was informally kept up down to the World War, Great Britain playing the part of a protector to Portugal.

A chart such as this one can easily be put on the blackboard. If colored chalk be used to indicate the different relationships, its effectiveness will be greatly increased. Such a completed chart, with the necessary explanations, should teach the pupils several things:

1. That various factors determine a State's relations to its neighbors, sometimes one group of interests being in the ascendancy and sometimes another. Good examples are furnished by the international relations of Italy, Rumania, Bulgaria, and Greece.
2. That the personal relations and opinions of sovereigns are usually of less importance than the more fundamental interests of their States.
3. That princesses marrying rulers of foreign States often hold the interest of their native land higher than that of their adopted country. *E. g.*, Sophia of Greece. The same observation applies to princes called to the thrones of foreign States. *E. g.*, Charles of Rumania.
4. That enmities and friendships among the great powers and their satellites are not of long duration. *E. g.*, the *Dreikaiserbund* and the Balkan Alliance.
5. That the powers have usually been suspicious of their allies, often with good reason, as well as of their friends. *E. g.*, Germany's attitude toward Italy and France's fear of an Anglo-German *rapprochement*.
6. That no State is entitled to adopt a "holier-than-thou" attitude with respect to its international relations. That all States are governed in their actions by what they conceive to be their self-interest. That a State's conception of its self-interest frequently means national aggrandizement at the direct or indirect expense of its neighbor. That such policies lead to war.
7. That a State will not observe its treaties when it thinks it is to its interest to disregard them. *E. g.*, Italy and Rumania.
8. That some States are not above the Machiavellian practice of committing themselves in secret treaties to opposing courses of action. *E. g.*, Italy in her relations to her allies and to France.

In a "good" class a chart similar to this one may be skeletonized (*i. e.*, the States alone placed on the blackboard), and the pupils, either through individual or committee action, be required to work out the principal facts concerning the inter-relations of the States. This method should result in stimulating greater interest, introducing standard authorities, and leading to some appreciation of the historical method.



# "Worksheets" as Aids in Supervised Study

BY HOWARD E. WILSON, GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, HARVARD UNIVERSITY

Supervised or directed study has a permanent and important rôle in American educational practice. A few years ago it was hailed as the long-awaited panacea for all the ills of pedagogy, but the profession generally has recovered from the overoptimism and consequent disillusionment of that frame of mind. An examination of current pedagogical literature indicates that supervised study, sanely considered, has a substantial place in educational thinking and is included as one phase of the classroom procedure in the more progressive schools of the country. The method of teaching the social studies in the University of Wisconsin High School, as reported by Burr W. Phillips in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* for November, 1926,<sup>2</sup> evidences a large degree of supervised study in that institution. The University of Minnesota High School seems interested in the problem of supervision, as do also the experimental schools of Columbia University. In the Laboratory Schools of the University of Chicago the "unit-mastery technique," proposed by Mr. H. C. Morrison and developed by the faculties of the schools, depends for its success, first of all, on the effective supervision of study during the "assimilation period," a step in the Morrisonian procedure for science-type subjects which occupies approximately three-fourths of the classroom time.<sup>3</sup>

Indeed, it may well be concluded that supervised study is desirable, not as the sole teaching procedure, but as a part of the operative technique of the expert teacher of the social studies. The difficulty, however, lies in the realization of that which is recognized as desirable. The same years of experience with supervised study which have demonstrated its value have also demonstrated the extreme difficulty involved in practicing effective supervision. The status of supervised study today seems to be, briefly, this—it is excellent in theory, based on sound psychological and pedagogical principles, if it can be made to work. But making it work is an astonishingly difficult matter.

This article will discuss a device utilized by the writer, though by no means originating with him, in the supervision of classroom study in the Department of Social Studies at the University High School, University of Chicago. First, it seems wise to suggest certain guiding factors in study and its supervision; second, the article will deal with "work-sheets" as devices for improving both study and its supervision.

## THE NATURE OF SUPERVISED STUDY

What is study? It is activity or *doing*. Behavior has come to be recognized not only as the end of the learning process, but also as an inherent part of the process itself. Franklin Bobbitt in *The Curriculum* says: "The word curriculum is Latin for a race-course, or the race itself—a place of deeds, or a series

of deeds. As applied to education, it is that series of things which children and youth *must do and experience* by way of developing abilities to do the things well that make up the affairs of adult life."<sup>4</sup> The report of the Committee on Curriculum-Making of the National Society for the Study of Education, issued in 1926, is emphatic in its support of an "activity-curriculum,"<sup>5</sup> and thereby indicates its conviction that study is activity. Charles Judson Herick, in his illuminating volume, *Brains of Rats and Men*, voices the belief of the psychologists that we learn by doing in the statement, "Our thinking and our doing are woven together in a single life...."<sup>6</sup> Many of the recent books in the social studies, such as Hill's *Community and Vocational Civics*, Tryon and Lingley's *The American People and Nation*, and the McKinley, Howland, and Dann volumes on World History, recognize this viewpoint, and stress, in their "pedagogical aids," lists of "Things to Do," and "Activities to Perform." The old, vague, and comparatively inadequate "study questions" are giving way to more specific and promising "study tasks." We may, indeed, conclude that study is performance of activities. The pupil who is studying well is attentively performing desirable activities in a desirable way.

Recognizing the necessity for specific and continuous activity in study, the question may fairly be raised, What activities or things-to-do may be useful in studying history and the social sciences? As well ask, What are the things a pupil may do in order to master the understandings, acquire the factual information, cultivate the appreciations, and develop the skills and habits which we consider to be desirable outcomes of the social studies. A pupil-activity is an exercise or item of work, is expenditure of energy in any form, is any task or effort the doing of which may aid the pupil in attaining established and valid educational objectives. Examples of things-for-the-pupil-to-do are: reading books; writing themes; listening to presentation of materials; preparing and giving floor-talks; observing pictures, charts, diagrams, and other visual aids; memorizing data; analyzing or comparing or applying data; making maps; drawing cartoons or illustrations; constructing models; and taking field trips. The list, though incomplete, is long; it includes (1) listening activities, (2) reading activities, (3) purely meditative activities, (4) writing activities, and (5) speaking activities.<sup>7</sup> Anything belongs on the list which helps make the study of history and the social sciences an active rather than a passive matter; anything belongs there which is an activity and which leads to learning.

Then we may summarize as follows: The pupil who studies is actively doing something, for study is activity. The pupil who studies well is performing

desirable activities in a desirable way. For the purposes of this paper we may assume that a study situation exists where the pupil is thoroughly attentive to the work in hand, that is, we may assume that motivation is properly taken care of. The pupil, adequately motivated, works at the rate of progress which is individually his best. He works under the guidance of a more mature and experienced individual.

One other question should be raised. What is the teacher's responsibility in the supervision of study, in the promotion of the desirable performance of desirable activities? The answer may be summarized as follows: he is required (1) to select appropriate activities and exercises such as those mentioned above; (2) to make assignments in such a way that all pupils know definitely what is expected of them at all times; (3) to motivate his pupils to work; (4) to establish a "learning situation" in the classroom, free from distractions and with a high degree of application and attention; (5) to observe, diagnose, and treat study difficulties, managing his classroom in such a way that he has time for such observation, diagnosis, and treatment; and (6) to test results of study, and, where necessary, guide re-study. Each of these activities deserves extended discussion, but within the limits of this paper that is impossible. The remainder of the article will deal with a device which, properly used, may facilitate the performance of each of these functions of the teacher supervising study.

#### WORKSHEETS: THEIR CONSTRUCTION AND USE

A worksheet is nothing more than a mimeographed or printed schedule of desirable activities, to be placed in the hands of a pupil at the beginning of a period of supervised study, to guide his classroom activity during the time that such study is under way. In some of the social science classes of the University High School "worksheets" of several different types have been used during the last few years. They are largely self-explanatory in character, and the reproduction of some of them here may make clearer the entire theory and practice which this article presents.

The first "worksheet" for examination is one devised for use in a unit on "The French Revolution" in a course in Modern History for high school juniors. This worksheet was placed in the hands of pupils at the beginning of the period of supervised study, a period lasting about two weeks. Pupils were not expected, however, to complete all the exercises listed; the instructor assigned orally, and had the pupils check on their copies of the worksheet, the activities which were to be completed. A tentative date for completion of the required exercises was agreed upon by the class. Pupils who finished the required work ahead of schedule were encouraged to undertake supplementary activities concerned with the topics in the unit in which they were most interested. Preliminary discussion of the worksheet, while the worksheet itself was in the hands of pupils, was designed to adjust the program of activities

to the needs of the particular class; the worksheet itself might be used with differing classes year after year, subject, of course, to such revision as experience suggested. It should be pointed out that reading references are not included in the worksheet; they were assigned orally or listed on a separate mimeographed "guide-sheet." Reference books, for the most part, were in a classroom library so that, as soon as pupils were ready to begin study, the classroom was converted into a school laboratory, a "history workshop" with the necessary tools for work at hand.

#### THINGS TO DO IN STUDYING THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

1. Imagine you are a foreign traveler journeying through France in 1700. Write a letter to a friend back home describing and commenting on what you see.
2. Determine why the revolutionary movement against the old régime came to France before coming to other countries. Formulate your solution in a short theme, a picture, or a dialogue.
3. Devise a chart showing the intellectual leaders and thinkers who influenced the revolutionary movement in France, and their contributions to the movement.
4. You are a newspaper man and have just witnessed the attack on the Bastille or the march of the women to Versailles. Write an account of one of the episodes for your paper.
5. The events of the years 1789 to 1795 in France form a continuous story, with a rapidly moving and dramatic theme. It is important that you understand the continuity of the story, i. e., that you see how one event grew logically out of the preceding events. In order to visualize these events in their proper order, construct a "time line" of the years. Divide a horizontal line into six equal parts, each part representing one of the six years. At right angles to the line, write in the important events occurring during the six years, placing each event in its proper time location. When you have finished the time-chart study it carefully, until you are certain that you understand why the events you have listed came in the order they did come.
6. Robespierre, the central figure of the "reign of terror," sincerely believed that his actions were for the best interest of France. Prepare a statement explaining his attitude, such a statement as Robespierre himself might have prepared just before his death.
7. If Napoleon had not spread the French Revolution beyond the boundaries of France and over all of Europe we should not hear so much today of either the French Revolution or "the man of destiny." It is of basic importance to an understanding of the importance of the French Revolution that you understand the conquests of Revolutionary France under Napoleon. Prepare a map of Europe and Africa showing the sections of the Napoleonic Empire at its height, as well as the territories Napoleon tried in vain to conquer.
8. Herewith is an extract from Robert G. Ingersoll's oration on Napoleon. Be able to interpret and amplify all the references made in the oration to the career of "the little corporal."  
 "A little while ago I stood at the grave of the old Napoleon....and thought about the career of the greatest soldier of the modern world. I saw him walking upon the banks of the Seine, contemplating suicide. I saw him at Toulon—I saw him putting down the mob in the streets of Paris—I saw him at the head of the army of Italy—I saw him crossing the bridge at Lodi with the tri-color in his hand—I saw him in Egypt in the shadow of the pyramids—I saw him conquer the Alps and mingle the eagles of France with the eagles of the crags. I saw him at Marengo

—at Ulm and Austerlitz. I saw him in Russia, where the infantry of the snow and the cavalry of the wild blast scattered his legions like winter's withered leaves. I saw him at Leipsic in defeat and disaster—clutched like a wild beast—banished to Elba. I saw him escape and retake an empire by the force of his genius. I saw him upon the frightful field of Waterloo, where chance and fate combined to wreck the fortunes of their former king. I saw him at St. Helena, with his hands crossed behind him, gazing out upon the sad and solemn sea."

9. Prepare a cartoon showing (1) either the ordinary Englishman's attitude toward France in 1809 or (2) the ordinary Frenchman's attitude toward England in the same year.
10. Write an editorial for an American Federalist newspaper of 1807, denouncing Jefferson for his embargo policy, or one for a Republican newspaper, defending Jefferson and the embargo policy. State reasons for your stand in either case.
11. In an American history, written by two reputable historians and published in 1925, are these sentences: "The close of the (Napoleonic) war in Europe (in 1814)....ended the conditions which had caused the war (of 1812) between the United States and Great Britain." "The peace that followed Waterloo was no less an important event in American than in European history." Be able to explain the statements.
12. Evaluate one of the following books as to (1) the truthfulness of the picture it presents, (2) the accuracy of its specific facts, and (3) the fairness of the author's viewpoint toward the events he describes:  
 Dickens, *A Tale of Two Cities*.  
 Hugo, *Ninety-three*.  
 Dumas, *Taking the Bastille*.  
 Sabatini, *Scaramouche*.  
 Shaw, *The Man of Destiny*.
13. Write three questions (with a brief, correct answer for each question) which you consider fair test questions for one's understanding of the French Revolution.
14. Construct a chart showing the rise and fall of Napoleon. Indicate on your drawing the chief events of his meteoric career.

While the type of worksheet given above is valuable, experience with it has revealed a number of defects. It is unhandy not to include reading references in the worksheet proper. Moreover, the worksheet does not make sufficiently specific assignments; the assignments are of unequal merit; directions for work are not adequate.

A second worksheet, somewhat more specific in character, is that for a unit entitled "Safeguarding Public Health" used in a "Community Life" course in the sophomore year at the University High School. This worksheet contains only the minimal essential activities of the unit, the exercises which every pupil is expected to perform. The activities, like that of the worksheet above, were performed in a classroom converted into a social-science workshop.

#### THINGS TO DO IN STUDYING THE UNIT ON HEALTH

1. As a part of our work on the unit, "Safeguarding Public Health," each pupil is expected to make a collection of news items, pictures, pamphlets, magazine articles, etc., illustrative of the topic, "Keeping Our Community Healthful." The collection is to be handed in at the end of the unit. Start your collection at once, and add to it from day to day. Each item in the collection, that is, each clipping, must be mounted on a sheet of theme-size paper. On the paper must be written the source, date of publica-

tion, and any other information about the article you may desire.

Divide your collection of clippings into three sections: (1) The Importance of Health, (2) The Responsibility for Safeguarding Health, and (3) How the Community Safeguards Health, corresponding to the three divisions in which we study the unit.

The Chicago papers contain many usable clippings. The magazine *Hygeia* is particularly valuable. Bulletins issued by the city and State departments of health are also suggested as possible sources of good clippings.

#### Topic I. The Importance of Health

2. Write a paragraph, not more than half a page long, explaining the statement, "Health is the first of all liberties." Pay particular attention to the form in which your ideas are expressed.
3. It is comparatively easy to understand the importance of health to the individual, but it is more difficult to understand the importance of an individual's health to the welfare of the community in which he lives. Read Hill, *Community Life and Civic Problems*, 179-184, and Lyman and Hill, *Literature and Living*, I, 438-446. After finishing the reading, write a short paragraph on "The Importance of My Health to My Community."

#### Topic II. The Responsibility for Good Health

4. In Lyman and Hill, *Literature and Living*, I, 448-449, is a "Health Pledge," prepared by the National Tuberculosis Association. Read the pledge carefully, evaluating each item in it, and determining whether the individual, without the aid of others, can observe each item.
5. Write one sentence, trying to explain where individual responsibility for health leaves off and community responsibility begins. Why is your task so difficult?

#### Topic III. How the Community Safeguards Health

6. Prepare a chart or diagram showing how the city government of Chicago safeguards the health of people living in the city. Use, in securing your information, the chapter on health in our textbook and the references to be found in other books and bulletins in the classroom library. See a list of available references posted on the class bulletin board.
7. Write a theme of from 7 to 10 pages on one of the following subjects. This is one of the few long papers to be required during the semester, and especial care should be given its production. Lists of references for each topic are posted on the bulletin board:
  - a. Chicago's Water Supply.
  - b. Protecting Chicago's Food Supply.
  - c. How Chicago Disposes of Its Garbage.
  - d. Housing and Health in Chicago.
  - e. Prevention of Accidents in Chicago.

An even more serviceable type of worksheet is that which follows—a worksheet for a unit on Feudalism and the Crusades, designed for use by a tenth-grade class in *Survey of Civilization*. The worksheet contains, not only the minimal essential exercises for assimilation of the unit, but also directions as to how to use the worksheet, and suggested supplementary exercises for those pupils who complete the required work ahead of the class schedule.

#### THINGS TO DO IN STUDYING FEUDALISM AND THE CRUSADES

##### How to Use the Worksheet

This worksheet or assimilation guide-sheet embodies nine exercises dealing with the contributions to civilization made by the Middle Ages. The exercises have been carefully selected, and each one should help you understand more clearly the significant ideas involved in the unit.

As soon as the worksheet is handed to you begin work on the exercises listed in it, completing them in the order



in which they are listed. Work as rapidly as you are able, but do not sacrifice accuracy for speed. Work independently, but ask the instructor for direction whenever necessary. Hand in the written material on each exercise as soon as it is completed.

Bear in mind that all written work will be read by the instructor with two purposes in mind: (1) to evaluate the accuracy and completeness of its historical content, and (2) to see how well you are able to use English to express your thoughts.

Use unruled paper. In the upper right-hand corner of each page write your name. On the first page, in addition, write (1) the number of the exercise, and (2) the date on which it is handed to the instructor. Always give your exercise a title.

Proofread your paper before it is handed in. As a sign that you have done so, write the word "proofread" with the date and your initials at the end of the paper. By proofreading your papers you should eliminate all mistakes due to carelessness.

#### Minimal Essential Exercises

1. Read the following references and then, on the outline map attached to the worksheet, (1) show the early homelands of the Visigoths, Ostrogoths, Franks, Northmen, Slavs, Vandals, and Lombards; (2) trace the paths followed by each of these tribes in their invasions of the Roman Empire; and (3) show in what regions each of the tribes finally settled. Study your map carefully so that you may be able to tell what tribes of barbarians were the nuclei for the modern nations of France, Germany, Spain, and Italy.

Davis, *Medieval Europe*, 26-56.

McKinley, Howland, and Dann, *World History in the Making*, 289-302.

Munro, *The Middle Ages*, 36-59.

Robinson and Breasted, *History of Europe*, 289-302.

2. On the basis of the reading done for Exercise 1 write a single paragraph stating in precise terms why civilization declined with the coming of the barbarians. If you desire more information than you gained from the references given in Exercise 1, the following references may be helpful:

Davis, *Medieval Europe*, 12-25.

McKinley, Howland, and Dann, *World History in the Making*, 283-292.

McNeal, *Modern Europe and Its Beginnings*, 47-59.

Robinson and Breasted, *History of Europe*, 302-305.

West, *The Modern World*, 38-41.

3. Prepare a detailed informational outline of the topic, "The Feudal System." Your outline should cover the following main topics:

A. Why Feudalism Developed.

B. Elements of Feudalism.

C. Feudal Groups.

D. Feudal Ceremonies.

E. Feudal Services and Obligations.

For your information consult the following references:

Harding, *New Medieval and Modern History*, 53-66.

McKinley, Howland, and Dann, *World History in the Making*, 341-356.

Munro, *The Middle Ages*, 126-137.

Robinson, *Readings in European History*, 88-97.

Robinson and Breasted, *History of Europe*, 350-355.

Webster, *Medieval and Modern History*, 114-122.

4. Make a drawing or series of drawings illustrating a medieval castle. Your drawing should reveal (1) the ground plan of a typical castle, (2) the chief defensive features of the castle, and (3) the architectural features which make the castle strikingly different from Greek and Roman buildings. For your material consult the following references; the illustrations will be particularly helpful:

Davis, *Life on a Medieval Barony*, 16-41, 224-241.

Harding, *New Medieval and Modern History*, 160-163.

McKinley, Howland, and Dann, *World History in the Making*, 420-426.

Robinson and Breasted, *History of Europe*, 343-346.

Tappan, *When Knights Were Bold*, 52-102.

Webster, *Medieval and Modern History*, 123-126.

5. Read several of the following descriptions of a medieval manor. Then write a one-sentence statement about each of the references you have read, summarizing your opinion of the reference. Do not summarize the subject content. State only your own opinion of the reference, telling whether you like or dislike it, whether you found it helpful or confusing, and why: McKinley, Howland, and Dann, *World History in the Making*, 412-420. Robinson, *Readings in European History*, 181-184. Robinson and Breasted, *History of Europe*, 346-350. Tappan, *When Knights Were Bold*, 102-122. West, *The Modern World*, 115-121.

6. Read several of the following references dealing with "Life of the People in Feudal Times." Make a list of the exact page references in the books you read on which may be found material dealing with each of the following subtopics:

A. Amusements in Feudal Times.

B. The Clothing Worn in Feudal Times.

C. Education for Knighthood.

D. Medieval Business Life.

The references are as follows. If you find other books which appeal to you more, you may substitute them for the books on this list:

Davis, *Life on a Medieval Barony*.

Harding, *The Story of the Middle Ages*, 158-206.

Harding, *New Medieval and Modern History*, 163-185.

McKinley, Howland, and Dann, *World History in the Making*, ch. 21.

McNeal, *Modern Europe and Its Beginnings*, 62-85.

Tappan, *When Knights Were Bold*.

Webster, *Medieval and Modern History*, 126-136.

7. List the underlying causes of the Crusades. Helpful reading material will be found in the following references, although the list by no means exhausts the references available in the classroom:

Harding, *The Story of the Middle Ages*, 156-157.

McKinley, Howland, and Dann, *World History in the Making*, 359-366.

Robinson, *Readings in European History*, 146-150.

Robinson and Breasted, *History of Europe*, 400-402.

Webster, *Medieval and Modern History*, 162-164.

8. Outline either the first Crusade or the third Crusade. Your outline, in either case, should cover the following points—underlying causes, direct or immediate causes, outstanding leaders, route taken to the Holy Land, and accomplishments or results of the Crusade. For material, consult the indices of such books as:

Archer-Kingsford, *The Crusades*.

Davis, *Medieval Europe*.

Harding, *The Story of the Middle Ages*.

McKinley, Howland, and Dann, *World History in the Making*.

Robinson and Breasted, *History of Europe*.

Harding, *New Medieval and Modern Europe*.

Webster, *Medieval and Modern History*.

9. Write a theme of not more than two pages on the topic, "Significant Results of the Crusading Movement." Pay particular attention to the clearness and conciseness with which you express your ideas. For valuable material consult:

Archer-Kingsford, *The Crusades*, 425-451.

Webster, *Medieval and Modern History*, 175-177.

West, *The Modern World*, 254-258.

#### Suggested Supplementary Exercises

1. Write a theme on one of the following topics:

The Training of a Knight.

Medieval Tournaments.

Life of a Peasant in Feudal Times.

The Children's Crusade.

Student Life in a Medieval University.  
Medieval Armor and Weapons of Warfare.  
Art in the Middle Ages.  
What the Mohammedans Believe.

2. Make a series of drawings illustrative of life on a medieval manor. For example, draw the manor house; make a map of the manor property, showing location of manor buildings and divisions of land; illustrate methods of farming, of keeping house, etc., etc.
3. Build a cardboard or clay manor-house or castle.
4. Write an imaginative diary of a Crusader.
5. Make a map of England, showing the sections of the country occupied by the various barbaric tribes which settled on the island before and during the Middle Ages.
6. Read and compare Eva Marsh Tappan's *When Knights Were Bold* and William Stearn Davis' *Life on a Medieval Barony*.

Several characteristics of this worksheet, as contrasted with the preceding, are worth noting. In the first place, it contains both minimal essential activities and suggested supplementary activities, as has already been pointed out. Second, the worksheet is personal in character; it is in the nature of a personal communication from teacher to pupil. Third, the series of nine minimal or required activities is highly varied in character, but all the activities are focused on understandings which are considered to be essential to mastery of the unit. It is apparent, too, that the worksheet above calls for the use of a relatively large classroom library. Naturally an extensive body of equipment is desirable in study, but the principle upon which the worksheet itself is based can be applied to study in a class which has no reference material available except the textbook.

If worksheets of this type are constructed for each unit of work in the social studies and placed in the hands of pupils at the beginning of supervised study on the unit, both study and its supervision may be made more effective. Advantages which the writer has found to accrue from use of the worksheet in the manner may be summarized as follows:

(1) The pupil's time is saved because he knows at all times exactly what to do next. The worksheet carries work-directions for a period of from two to four weeks. The pupil using it works at his own rate of progress, conferring with the instructor or with classmates only when conference facilitates study.

(2) The pupil's energy is conserved because he does not waste his resources in a trial-and-error method of finding study-activities which may lead to a desired result. To be sure, there is no guarantee whatever that the activities chosen for the worksheet will eventuate in learning, but the chances are much better that such will be the case than they are under an arrangement where the assignments are a hand-to-mouth, day-by-day affair.

(3) The worksheet aids in the establishment of a learning situation in the classroom because it connotes to the pupil's mind the idea of the classroom as a workshop, because it gives pupils no excuse for loitering while "waiting for an assignment," and because it frees the teacher from routine matters of assignment-making.

(4) The worksheet enables the teacher to supervise study more closely and adequately, because it implies that pupils will work normally no matter what the teacher is engaged in doing and because it gives the teacher more time to observe, diagnose, and treat study difficulties individually.

#### SUMMARY

In conclusion, the thesis of this paper may be summarized as follows: Supervised study is highly important to good educational procedure; our chief task today is to devise techniques of actually supervising actual study. In order to do this we have to know what the pupil does while studying and what the teacher may do while supervising.

Study is activity, and the pupil at study is performing a series of activities. The pupil performing activities well is attentive, is working individually and at his own rate of progress, and is under the close surveillance of a more mature individual. The teacher supervising study is expected to choose appropriate activities for assignment, to make assignments economically, to motivate his pupils adequately, to establish a learning situation in the classroom-workshop, to observe, diagnose, and treat as best he can the study difficulties appearing in the classroom, and to test and re-teach where necessary.

In the experience of the writer, worksheets of the types described in this article are helpful to the teacher sincerely attempting to work out a technique of supervised study which will measure up to the standards suggested. No objective evidence has been accumulated to prove the point; the only evidence is a subjective opinion formulated on the basis of several years of experience in constructing and using such worksheets in the University High School, University of Chicago. And, by no means, is the worksheet to be regarded as a device which will run of its own momentum. Its success depends upon the manner in which it is used.

<sup>1</sup> See Earle U. Rugg, "Supervised Study in History," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XI (April, 1920), 142-149.

<sup>2</sup> Burr W. Phillips, "The History Assignment: A Suggested Classroom Procedure," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XVIII (November, 1926), 322-327.

<sup>3</sup> For a detailed discussion of the "unit-mastery technique," see H. C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1926. Chs. I-XVIII. Also H. C. Hill, "Mastery Technique in the Social Studies," *Ohio State University Bulletin*, XXXII (1927), 248-258, and H. E. Wilson, "Systematic Teaching of High School History," *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XIX (March, 1928), 121-124.

<sup>4</sup> Franklin Bobbitt, *The Curriculum*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1928, p. 42.

<sup>5</sup> National Society for the Study of Education, *Twenty-sixth Yearbook*, Part II, "The Foundations of Curriculum-Making," pp. 11-28.

<sup>6</sup> Charles Judson Herrick, *Brains of Rats and Men*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1926, p. 16.

<sup>7</sup> A previous article attempted to present a "master-list" of study-activities useful for classes in history and social science. Such a "master-list" should be of value in selecting appropriate activities for pupil-work in the supervised-study period. *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, XX (May, 1929), pp. 218-224.

# A Daily Assignment Sheet in Vocational Civics

BY GEORGE H. SLAPPEY, HEAD OF DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SCIENCES, O'KEEFE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL, ATLANTA, GA.

The breadth of subject-matter necessarily touched upon in any course in Vocational Civics, which must cover the myriads of occupations engaged in by the people of the world, and the differences in intelligence and experience in the children of a large school, where the classes are grouped according to the Otis intelligence test, made the achievement of a course of study in our school difficult, and that of an assignment sheet still more difficult. Realizing the difficulties which many schools are encountering in this regard, we offer the results of the investigations and experience in evolving an assignment sheet in the O'Keefe Junior High School for what they are worth to those who face similar problems.

We proceeded in the formation of an assignment sheet, upon the basis that the aim of a course in vocational civics is to give the child sufficient information in nine weeks to enable him to make an intelligent selection of a vocation, or to enable him to think intelligently along the line of a vocational choice in the future. Difficulties in the achievement of this aim were obvious. First, which occupations should be emphasized in which classes? Different groups of children, because of different environments and intelligences and different opportunities, would be interested in different occupations. Second, preconceived ideas of occupational choice, based on narrow parental preference and childish ignorance, were to be combated. Third, the children, entering an almost entirely new field of study, were sadly handicapped with lack of vocabulary. Fourth, mechanical difficulties naturally arose in the preparation of the assignment sheet for presentation to the children, and in the matter of seeing that it was properly used when it was in their possession. Although carefully planned beforehand, experience dictated many changes before we felt that our assignment sheet met, more or less, the demands of the different classes grouped according to their abilities, before it had a generally satisfactory instructional value, and before it accommodated itself to the economic demands of the school office.

First, in order to decide what vocations the individual classes would be interested in, a survey was made of the initial occupational desires of the children, and of the occupations which their parents desired them to follow, and of the occupations followed by the parents themselves.

In order to ascertain something of the occupational knowledge which the children already had, and in order to give them an idea as to what they should hold in mind when studying an occupation, a preliminary test was given them, covering the main essentials of the course to be taught. Later on the same

test was given as a measure of the progress of the children in gaining information and in showing judgment in the matter of occupational choice.

The first two weeks of the course were spent in teaching the children the occupational advantages offered by the public school system, showing the vocational value of all subjects taught in the school, keeping in mind the idea that the child should discover in his present situation his aptitudes, and so criticize his original choice of occupation made in the survey. At the end of two weeks a second tabulation was made of choice in occupation, and the child was told to develop this choice, or, if he changes his decision, of a still later choice of occupation, into a term paper, in which he should make a detailed and constructive study of this occupation according to an outline, the essentials of which were: 1. Importance of occupation; 2. Work done; 3. Advantages offered; 4. Disadvantages and problems; 5. Preparation required; 6. Other requirements, such as physical strength, etc., listed; 7. Income expected; 8. Effect on worker. In one class there were as many as thirty different occupations chosen. The occupational theses were read aloud in the class from time to time, as we reached the study of that occupation in the sequence in which the text treated it, in order that all children might benefit by the personal research of the individual. The text was far more vital with the addition of the personal study on the part of a child who was particularly interested in the different phases of work.

An intensive study of one occupation and a fair knowledge of the text was made the basis of a passing grade. Additional occupational studies were required in order to achieve higher grades.

Preconceived ideas of occupational choice were dispipated by the knowledge of advantages and opportunities offered in lines of endeavor in which the child came to believe himself better fitted for endeavor, the teacher presenting those occupations not so popular with, or unfamiliar to the class, or perhaps through the knowledge that some occupations are more crowded than others, or require more preparation than he was willing to give. At any rate, many changes were made in occupational choice during the quarter.

The problem of an unfamiliar vocabulary was lessened by the co-operation of the Spelling Department with the Social Sciences Department. They included in the spelling scales key-words in occupational study. Words were also assigned for study at each vocational civics recitation.

One of the greatest mechanical difficulties lay in the assembling of a vocational library where there should be sufficient material for all students to do



research work. Students were encouraged to bring and donate to the school any available material, or even old books of no use which might be sold for a few good books. One class brought in over a hundred books, including such material as a Policeman's Yearbook of the city and a civil engineer's book of Blueprints. Our Director of Guidance and Research furnished us with a descriptive bibliography of books available for vocational study, and from it our library is gradually being stocked. The publishing companies send our teachers sample copies of vocational texts for inspection. These go into the library. Outside reading must be done after school, so the library is open for an hour after school in order that books may be examined and taken out. Outside reading is still our greatest problem, but we require more than two reading references before a thesis is acceptable.

We must economize in the use of paper and in the use of the mimeograph. Lesson assignments for two weeks are included on one mimeograph sheet. There was, of course, the necessity of great conciseness. And clearness was as necessary as brevity in an instrument which was to be put into the hands of the students as a part of their notebook. A sample assignment sheet follows:

PLAN OF STUDY FOR VOCATIONAL CIVICS  
October 29—November 9

For rate "C" cover regular assignment and make a written study of not less than 300 words, using more than two references, on your chosen occupation. For the rate "B" the requirements for "C," with the addition of a similar study on another occupation. For the rate "A" two additional occupational studies, or one more detailed study, with twice the required number of references, in addition to the work required for "C."

**Monday**

Theme: Commercial Occupations (continued). Printing, Insurance, Banking, and general suggestions for choosing one's business. Call for written exercise. Discussion of advantages and disadvantages of commercial occupations. Theses. Assignment for Tuesday: Read in G. & W., pp. 258-263. Investigate the words: civil, municipal, administration, consular.

**Tuesday**

Theme: Civil Service. Discussion of variety of opportunity in Government Service, and reward for same. Theses. Assignment: Read in G. & W., pp. 264-267. Prepare term papers on the engineering professions. Prepare oral reports on exercises 1 and 2 on pages 266-267. Investigate the words: smelter, cantilever, technical, metallurgical.

**Wednesday**

Theme: The Engineering Professions. Reading of term theses. Discussion by class as to which of the engineering professions is the most necessary to world progress. Assignment for Thursday: Read in G. & W., pp. 278-301. Complete term papers on the learned professions. Investigate words: specialist, pharmacist, Master of Arts, bibliography.

**Thursday**

Theme: The Learned Professions. Reading of term papers on the learned professions. Debate after discussion in class on the question of which of the learned professions requires the most preparation.

Assignment for Friday: Current Events, special topics, and class leader. Parliamentary drill on the proper way to present a report.

**Friday**

Theme: Current Events. Parliamentary drill.

Assignment for Monday: Read in G. & W., pp. 302-316. Answer in writing ex. 12, p. 316. Complete term papers on Home-Making. Investigate the words: dietetics, fundamental, schedule.

**Monday**

Theme: Home-Making and Allied Occupations.

Read term papers. Discuss the value of the comfortable home.

Assignment for Tuesday: Read in G. & W., pp. 312-335. Prepare to make a two-minute talk in class on any one of the occupations described in the chapter. Complete term papers on these occupations. Investigate the words: caterer, artistic, executive.

**Tuesday**

Theme: Miscellaneous and New Openings in Occupations.

Term papers, two-minute talks prepared by student, assignment according to interest.

Assignment for Wednesday: Read in G. & W., pp. 401-414. Prepare ex. 14, p. 414, if possible; otherwise, prepare answers to 7 and 8, p. 414. Investigate the words: apprenticeship, typographical, tact, studio.

**Wednesday**

Theme: Securing a Position.

Report on exercises assigned. Demonstrate practical application for position. Report on exercises assigned.

Assignment for Thursday: Review of Introduction to Study of Occupations in notebook and in reference and text.

**Thursday**

Theme: Review.

Discussion of review, and of changes in attitude toward work on part of students.

Assignment for Friday: Current Events and Review of remainder of text.

**Friday**

Current Events.

Topical lesson; emphasis on poise in recitation.

Assignment: Review, and short theme on: Have I Made an Unwise Choice?

Test on first test day.

We feel that the assignment sheet has been of value to the child, because it allows him to budget his time and sets a definite standard before him all the time. It helps a teacher to measure more accurately the emphasis which may be given to the different units of importance in the course, and frees the teacher from the worry of making an assignment in a hurry, when interest has kept the class at a high point of achievement until the hour is up. It denies the child and the parent the alibi of failing to understand the lesson assignment when the child has been absent, or the teacher "indefinite." If the assignment sheet is used in a school where there are many classes, the classes are kept together and exchange of students is made possible. The danger lies in using the assignment sheet too mechanically, so that it robs the individual teacher of originality in lesson planning. For this reason, as well as for the sake of brevity and conciseness, the assignment sheet should be but an outline, interpreted into a more elaborate lesson plan by the teacher.

# An Armistice Day Program Stressing World Peace

BY MARY E. KENNEY, WARREN HARDING HIGH SCHOOL, BRIDGEPORT, CONN.

Early last fall our history department was asked by the assembly committee to arrange a program for the Armistice Day assembly. We readily consented, and immediately began to plan.

We felt that the tenth anniversary of peace should be commemorated in a special manner. But how? It happened, fortunately, that our department head had had an especially strong group of students in her modern European history class last semester, boys and girls who were intensely interested in the growth of internationalism since the World War, and who in class had shown evidence of much thinking on world questions. We got five of the leaders interested in making our program one that would emphasize world peace and the progress made in that direction since the war ended. These boys and girls agreed to talk before the assembly on the growth of internationalism since 1918. One was to be Chairman, who would lay out our plan at the beginning of the program, introduce each speaker, and keep a running thread of connection with the growth of peace and international co-operation. Each of the other four took for his talk a phase of the theme in which he was especially interested.

The first girl spoke on the intangible forces that make for world peace, emphasizing economic connecting links and the growth of communication and intercourse with all parts of the world, even the increase in travel for pleasure—all such facts, she affirmed, tending to make war less likely. She was followed by a speaker on the League of Nations, as one of the tangible efforts made for world peace; another on the World Court; and, lastly, a boy who explained the Kellogg Treaties and their significance. The students wrote their own speeches, none of which required over three minutes for delivery, and all of which, they well knew, had to be simple, since half the audience were freshmen and sophomores, who knew nothing of the subject and therefore had to be shown.

But our program must have something else besides speeches. At this point, one of our teachers had an inspiration. There is John McCrae's beautiful poem, "In Flanders' Field"—why not have a tableau, consisting of a scene at the front, while the poem was read? But could we connect that with our speeches, or must we leave them disintegrated? There is a connection:

"To you from failing hands we throw  
The torch: be yours to hold it high."

Might not the torch mean the charge laid on the world so to act that these young lives should not have been sacrificed in vain? That from their death a world, where co-operation in place of selfishness, friendliness in place of war, should evolve? In other words, is not the progress made toward world peace

in the last ten years a carrying forward of the torch thrown to us by the dying?

With such a thought in mind, we decided to commence our program with a tableau depicting a trench scene in France, and have this poem read. With some boxes and canvas the scene was built, and six or eight boys, with uniforms and rifles, impersonated soldiers about to go over the top. We were especially happy in our choice of a boy to read the poem, for we found one, who having been out of school for four years, was older than most students, and therefore had a fully developed voice, and perhaps a keener sense of the meaning of what he read. We felt that he should not be visible, however, that he should be only a voice speaking from the void, while a ghostly light played upon the still figures of the young soldiers waiting for the command. Therefore, we placed him in the organ loft, above the heads of the audience and out of their sight. And so, when the audience had quieted, the auditorium was darkened, a deep voice resonant with feeling began McCrae's beautiful lines, and slowly the curtain parted, revealing the soldiers in the quietness just before the spring into action.

As the curtain closed, our Chairman was on his feet, asking the challenging question, "What have we accomplished in carrying forward this torch tossed to us by the dying in Flanders Fields?" Then he proceeded to introduce the speakers, each of whom in his turn showed that his project was a forward step in the march of humanity toward a better world.

But are the League of Nations and the Kellogg Treaties all that the nations can do? Does not the sacrifice of the war dead put upon the living an even greater obligation? To show that there must be a growth of unity of feeling without surrender of national rights, we worked out a little scene which might well be called the Spirit of Internationalism, as the climax of our program.

The scene centered around a proposed world federation flag, which has been favorably received by several peace organizations, though not as yet officially adopted. The flag was designed by the Rev. J. W. Van Kirk, of Youngstown, Ohio. In our episode, it served as a symbol of the internationalism which the nations must respect if we would have peace. Indeed, we made it the living symbol of the ideals for which so many young men fell ten years ago.

At the conclusion of the talk on the Kellogg Treaties, our Chairman said:

"If we think over the things which have been outlined to us this afternoon, we will see that something more than the ideals which have made nations great

is needed. To accomplish world peace, there must be a forgetfulness of self and a willingness to blend our aims and ideals with those of the other nations."

With this, our pianist began to play softly from the Andante of Tchaikovsky's Fifth Symphony. The auditorium was darkened, the curtain rose, showing the stage in the dim grey-blue of twilight. In the center of the foreground was a huge brass crucible (in reality, the body of a kettle drum). Behind it, a short distance, was a pedestal draped in white, upon which stood a girl in flowing garments of white, holding high above her head a lighted torch. Slowly the rear curtains on the right parted, and two girls clad in long white Grecian robes entered, holding between them the American flag. Walking with dignity to the crucible, they gently dropped the flag into it, and then took their places, one on each side, the beginning of a semi-circle. Already two other girls, bearing another national flag, had entered from the left rear, and, having deposited their flag, took their places beside the first two. This continued until seven flags had been brought in. Then two girls entered, one from each side, and, going to the crucible, took from it the international flag before mentioned, and, standing behind the crucible, but in front of the torch bearer, held it high, while the lights grew brighter, bringing out the many colors of this flag, and the music continued softly. Thereupon each couple went to the crucible, and, taking out the national flag they had formerly put in, grouped them-

selves around the girls with the international flag.

When the last girl had taken her place, the music died away, and the Chairman said:

"Into this crucible of world peace each nation must drop its ideals, so that we, according to a magic art, may extract from the crucible international ideals woven from the standards desired by the various nations.

"These national flags have become as one flag, typifying world unity. These seven colors of the rainbow in this flag represent the natural unity in the variations of the race and in human interests. As these shades flow together they produce white, an emblem of truth, brotherhood, harmony, and peace. The stars stand for the nations in the world federation. It is truly symbolical of our internationalism.

"And so we will try to keep faith with the dead."

With this concluding pledge for the future the program ended.

The idea that we carried out was a composite one, the result of several minds in the history department thinking together. The artistry of the finished program would have been impossible without the co-operation of the faculty members in charge of the stage and public speech, as well as that of the students who helped to put into action these thoughts.

Perhaps the finest compliment the assembly program received was that of an apparently empty-headed flapper school girl, who was overheard to say: "Well, that program makes you think."

## *A New Textbook in Problems of Democracy*

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*Ezra Bowen*

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# Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

W. G. Kimmel, Chairman

## ACTIVITIES OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES INVESTIGATION

The Investigation of History and Other Social Studies in the Schools, sponsored by the American Historical Association, is vested in a Commission on Direction. The members of the Commission on Direction are:

Frank S. Ballou, Superintendent of Schools, Washington, D. C.

Charles A. Beard, New Milford, Conn.

Isaiah Bowman, American Geographical Society.

Ada Comstock, Radcliffe College.

George S. Counts, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Guy Stanton Ford, University of Minnesota.

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Ernest Horn, University of Iowa.

Henry Johnson, Teachers College, Columbia University.

W. E. Lingelbach, University of Pennsylvania.

Leon C. Marshall, Johns Hopkins University.

Charles E. Merriam, University of Chicago.

Jesse H. Newlon, Director, Lincoln School, New York City.

Jesse F. Steiner, Tulane University.

A. C. Krey, Chairman, University of Minnesota.

The Executive Committee for the present year includes A. C. Krey, who is also serving as Director of the Investigation; Charles E. Merriam, and Jesse H. Newlon.

Funds were made available through a grant from the Carnegie Foundation in March, 1929, and active work was started at once.

Professor Edgar Dawson, of Hunter College, has assisted the Director in getting the work of the Investigation started. Special investigations of an exploratory nature have been conducted by E. P. Smith, New York State Education Department; Miss Bessie L. Pierce, formerly of University of Iowa, now of University of Chicago; and Miss Lena C. Van Bibber, State Normal School, Towson, Md.

For the current academic year the Investigation has obtained the assistance of Professor Truman L. Kelley, Stanford University, who has consented to serve as technical adviser on tests and measurements. W. G. Kimmel, formerly Supervisor of Social Studies, New York State Education Department, will serve as Executive Secretary of the staff.

The officers wish to express their gratitude to the many school administrators and teachers who have already generously co-operated. They wish also to announce their intention to invite many others to help in the activities of the Investigation during the current year. More adequate acknowledgment of assistance will be made at the annual meeting of the American Historical Association.

Further announcements will be made in later issues of this publication. In the meantime, communications should be addressed either to 610 Fayerweather Hall, Columbia University, New York City, or to Room 316, Library, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

John N. Washburne, in "The Use of Questions in Social Science Material," in the May issue of *Journal of Educational Psychology*, presents some of the results of an investigation carried on in The Lincoln School. The purpose was to discover whether the mastery of social studies materials is facilitated by the use of factual and thought questions, included with the materials to be studied. Five different forms of a story, "How the Florentine People Struggled for Democracy," were used; in forms the placement of the questions was varied, while in one form no questions were used. Data were collected for 1,456 pupils in Grades VII-IX, inclusive, but the data for only 172 pupils in each of the five groups were finally used. Pupils were permitted twenty-five minutes to read the story, and

a comprehensive test was administered. Some of the conclusions are: (1) a genuine difference in learning is involved in the use of questions in the reading material, amounting in experimental generalization to 40 per cent. of the mean score; (2) there is a marked difference in learning caused by variations in the placement of the same questions; (3) questions, in general, aid only in the recall of the facts with which they deal; (4) questions aid recall by drawing attention to one set of facts, and there is a variation according to the placement of the questions; (5) questions dealing with generalizations do not increase the ability of pupils to draw generalization from facts other than those included in the questions; (6) in the placement of materials, an arrangement which favors the recall of materials also favors the making of generalizations; (7) the results clearly indicate that the best placement of questions is at the beginning of the story; (8) there seem to be differences in age, sex, and ability of pupils in the effects of the placement of questions. The writer also summarizes his data in a series of fourteen statements.

The sessions of the World Federation of Educational Associations, held in Geneva, resulted in the consideration of some measures of interest to teachers of the social studies. Sir Gilbert Murray is reported to have expressed doubts concerning the value of direct attempts to teach citizenship and morals, according to news dispatches published in the *New York Times*. Salvador de Madariaga, well known for his work on *Disarmament* and as a lecturer on international relations, is reported to have said, in the course of a luncheon address at the International Club, that all past history is useless for us because of national bias. He is reported to have urged that history be rewritten from a world point of view. American children in their study of the Revolutionary War should use textbooks written for English children in addition to the usual textbooks.

Resolutions were adopted which call for the exclusion of propaganda in all forms from the schools. Augustus Thomas, re-elected as President, is reported to have said: "Propaganda, even though it is for the ends that we believe good, is never the whole truth. The rising generation must be presented with the truth from all sides and left free to follow its own convictions; otherwise, it will be no better than its ancestors."

Five Herman-Jordans peace committees, meeting in conjunction with the Congress, voted to undertake a worldwide survey of textbooks and test materials to the end that more accurate information may afford a basis for better international understanding.

*Radicalism in American History Textbooks*, by Thyra Carter (M. A. Thesis, University of Iowa, 1929), includes an analysis of textbooks to determine the amount of space and the content given to different nationalities, including the British, Germans, Irish, Italians, and Poles. These peoples receive very little space as compared with the so-called American group. The English receive more space than any nationality other than the American group, and the space varied in amount from 3 to 8 per cent. of the total space in different textbooks. The Irish, Italians, and Poles received less than 1 per cent. in all the textbooks examined. In general, the British received unfavorable treatment to the time of the Spanish-American War, while Germans were presented in a friendly manner until after the Civil War. The amount of space given to the Irish, Italians, and Poles is too small to leave any definite impression of friendship or dislike for these peoples.

All teachers of history in the intermediate grades are cognizant to some degree of the command of historical information gained by children at the lower grade levels, but usually little effort is made to become acquainted with material studied. Mildred A. Dawson, in the June issue of *The Elementary School Journal*, contributes the results of an investigation of historical material in seven pieces of primary readers, numbering twenty-six books. Methods of tabulation and definitions of terms are presented in brief form, followed by an interpretation of the data included in five tables. Some of the principal findings are: (1) while the amount of space devoted to historical material is limited, it increases from grade to grade, with the third-grade readers listed as containing three times the amount of historical material found in second-grade readers; (2) fourteen persons, three classes of people, seventeen events, and means of pioneer travel and communication receive major attention, while particular objects, dates, and places receive little attention; (3) a few general items, such as Pilgrims, pioneers, inventions, and Indians, are repeatedly mentioned, while Boone, Washington, and Lincoln are found in most series, along with the first Thanksgiving and the World War; (4) the numbers of indefinite time expressions is greater than the number of definite time expressions, which increase in number from grade to grade.

Carrie Woodford, in *Nationalism in American Histories of the Nineteenth Century* (M. A. Thesis, University of Iowa, 1929), includes: (1) an analysis of textbooks to disclose lists of heroes; (2) an investigation of outstanding events of a diplomatic character, with special attention to events concerning five European Powers and the United States; (3) an examination of movements to promote peace, and (4) a comparison of Goodrich's *History of the United States* with Muzzey's *History of the American People* to indicate differences brought about in the writing of textbooks during the interval of one hundred years.

Among other conclusions, the textbooks of earlier days stressed invariably patriotism of the "100 per cent." type, according to the writer. Diplomatic controversies are also presented in a more tolerant and fairer manner in present-day textbooks.

Howard C. Hill and Robert B. Weaver, in the April issue of *School Review*, contribute "A Unitary Course in United States History for the Junior High School." The course has been developed in the University High School, University of Chicago. The meaning of the unitary plan of organization and series of distinguishing characteristics between the conventional and unitary plans of organization of subject-matter are presented, with illustrations of current misconceptions in the usage of the unitary plan in current publications. The course in the University High School includes ten units, which are presented in the form of brief guidance outlines. Other items included in the article are: a list of basic textbooks used in the course, the classroom library, lists of magazine articles and stories, and laboratory equipment.

The second and final part of the article is included in the May issue of the same publication. The teaching procedure is presented in a concrete manner, with the guidance outline for one unit, sample test items from pre-tests and final tests, and a description of types of supplementary enterprises completed by pupils.

The July number of *The Annals* (American Academy of Political and Social Science, 3622-24 Locust Street, Philadelphia) is entitled, "Present-Day Causes of International Friction and Their Elimination." The range of subjects considered includes: war debts, reparations, liquidation of war controls, freedom of the seas, Anglo-American relations, the Kellogg Pact, the tariff, policy of the United States, the protection of the life and property of foreigners,

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and growing world armaments. A special supplement, Edward B. Logan, *Lobbying*, numbering 91 pages, includes a historical account of the development of lobbying, together with a review of the major activities of all types of organizations which attempt to influence the course of legislation in Congress and the State Legislatures. Certain conclusions are set forth. In view of the attempts, many of them successful, of organizations to introduce propaganda into the schools, this is a timely study for school people.

In the June issue of *Educational Method*, Martha Willard reports "An Experiment in the Use of Two Methods of Instruction." Two sections of pupils, 36 in each section, were selected from nine sections in order to provide pupils of parallel ages, equal ability in so far as possible as measured by intelligence and achievement tests and grades attained in the fifth grade, and parallel training in the fifth grade. The course of study was based on the "Old World Background." The techniques of instruction included a modified Dalton plan in one section and the daily recitation-study procedure in the other. A new-type test, a copy of which is presented, was used at the beginning and end of the fourteen weeks' period, supplemented by a subjective application test composed of a series of problems. The findings include the following items of interest: (1) in the section using the modified Dalton technique the median of correct responses was 14 per cent. on the exploratory test and 77 per cent. in the final test, while in the section using the daily recitation-study procedure the percentages of correct responses were 15 for the exploratory test and 57 for the final test; (2) in the subjective adaptation test the modified Dalton section gained 62 per cent. of the points "representing perfect adaptation for the group," and the daily recitation study group gained 53 per cent.

In the April issue of *The Indiana Teacher*, Harold Rugg, in "Teaching the Social Studies—History, Geography, and Civics—in the Elementary School," states the broad general objectives as understanding and tolerance. Pupils must gain an understanding of relationships between facts and generalizations which can be drawn from facts, rather than the mere memorization of facts. Twelve principles of teaching, based on recent psychological studies, are included, followed by a brief statement concerning a broad, unified social studies program, "organized primarily in terms of pupils' understanding of modern problems and conditions."

Harry E. Elder, in the same issue, contributes "Reading Situations in the Intermediate and Grammar Grades." A large part of the discussion includes an outline of reading situations in history. These are divided into two parts: "on the work level" and "on the play level." Each main division of the outline, as "A. Intensive reading of a specific amount of printed matter for the purpose of....," is followed by a series of concrete items. The underlying principle seems to be reading for a definite purpose. Reading "on the play level" includes newspapers, magazines, biographies, cartoons, stereographs, photographs, and poetry.

Byron J. Braman, in *Trends in the Social Science Programs in Iowa High Schools* (M. A. Thesis, University of Iowa, 1929), surveyed the social science programs most frequently found in use during the school year 1928-1929. The method included the use of a questionnaire, which was sent to 936 high schools. Replies were received from 253 schools. Data were collected on the course, textbooks, supplementary books, and other reading materials. Some of the findings include: (1) ancient history is quite uniformly offered as a course in the ninth grade; (2) approximately 80 per cent. of the time in the tenth grade is given to a combination of ancient and medieval history; (3) more than one-half of the schools which filed replies offer modern history in the tenth grade, and when designated as "General History" the course is offered in about one-third of the schools reporting; (4) American history is offered in both the eleventh and twelfth grades, with a tendency to

offer the course for the full year; (5) Civics is divided between Community Civics, offered at the ninth-grade level, and Advanced Civics, offered either at the eleventh or twelfth-grade levels; (6) Sociology is usually offered in the eleventh or twelfth grades, accompanied by a course in economics.

One of the frequent criticisms made by teachers of the social studies is that the school administrators apparently think that "anyone who can read can teach the social studies." Data subject combinations from two States have recently been published. M. G. Nelson, in the June issue of the *School Review*, analyzes data contributed for beginning high school teachers in New York State. Earl W. Anderson, in the May 29th issue of *Educational Research Bulletin*, contributes data for beginning teachers in Ohio. Part of the data, which includes only the social studies in combination with other subjects, are reproduced below.

TABLE I  
Subject Combinations in the Programs of Beginning Teachers

Major Subject		(Adapted: includes only data on social studies)		Subject Combinations			
		Single Subject	Per Cent.	Per Cent.			
Subject Positions		Pet.	Hsty.	Civics	Geog.	Soc.	Econ.
English:							
1927-28	284	13	22	8	7	1	
1928-29	205	15	22	7	6	3	
History:							
1927-28	99	9		23	9		6
1928-29	86	13		15	13		5
Mathematics:							
1927-28	109	14	16	6	8		
1928-29	86	15	14	7	12		
Latin:							
1927-28	113	7	18	6			
1928-29	66		23	9			
Home Economics:							
1927-28	105	30	17	3	11	4	
1928-29	82	18	12	12	10		
Manual Training:							
1927-28	44	45	9		9		
1928-29	27	55	15		15		
Music:							
1927-28	46	59	9				
1928-29	26	58	8				
Agriculture:							
1927-28	25	48	12		8		
1928-29	12	42					
French:							
1927-28	38		16				
1928-29	29	7	10				
Bot. & Zool.:							
1927-28	15	7	20				
1928-29	2	7					
Science:							
1927-28	6						
1928-29	50	5		10	8		
Commercial:							
1927-28	43	47	23	7			
1928-29	35	37	5	3			
Chemistry:							
1927-28	6		50		17		
1928-29	6		33				
Physics:							
1927-28	5			20			
1928-29	1						
Geography:							
1927-28	5		60	40			
1928-29	9		22	22			
Spanish:							
1927-28	6		33				
1928-29	2						

(Only subject listed in Table I which is not taught in combination with any of the social studies is General Science)



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There are several articles of interest to teachers of the social studies in the April-May-June issue of *Progressive Education*. Helen Hinds Ryan, in "Has the Secondary School Pupil as Much Right as an Adult to a Vivid Purpose in What He Does?," mentions some of the activities of pupils in the social studies in the University High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan. Edward Pulling, in "Developing a Spirit of Investigation in High School Pupils," describes approaches to activities in the social studies classes, some of which have been published as pamphlets and books. Carrie B. Edmondson, in "Sixth-Grade Bankers," gives the principal steps in the development of a project in banking in the training school of the Milwaukee State Teachers College. Another example of progressive tendencies in the social studies is Katharine Tierney's presentation of "Pilgrim Study: A Unit of Work in the Third Grade," as developed in the Hathaway Brown School, Cleveland. A number of fine illustrations of the work described in the articles are published in this issue of the magazine.

A. K. King, in the March and April issues of *High School Journal*, contributes "Teaching History by Units." A statement and discussion of the Morrison mastery technique follows a presentation of the more conventional techniques commonly used. There is a statement of objectives, a list of units for a course in modern history, a complete statement of the minimal essentials of a unit, "The Industrial Revolution," an "Assimilation Guide Sheet." The second article includes a discussion of the teaching cycle, with a statement of the difficulties encountered in the development of the technique. These include: (1) teachers do not understand the mastery idea; (2) pupils not accustomed to study habits necessary, with the needed changes in attitudes from the "getting-by" attitude to thoughtfulness, thoroughness, and intellectual honesty; (3) many schools lack library facilities and equipment; (4) administrative problems in length of period, organization of library, and teaching load must be adjusted.

## Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR HARRY J. CARMAN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

*Political Thought in the Sixteenth Century.* By J. W. Allen. The Dial Press, New York, 1928. xxii, 525 pp.

This book is standing evidence of the desirability of postponing the writing of books until scholarship has ripened in the mind. After a long career of teaching and study, Mr. Allen was apparently still unwilling to embark upon this book, and we are grateful to the persons who encouraged him to write it. Not everyone who is curious about the political thought of the sixteenth century has the leisure or the equipment to range through the many political treatises of the time, and hitherto the shallowness of the English summaries and the histories of political thought has been obvious to students. Now, it can safely be said, there is no excuse for the glib generalizations about sixteenth-century theorists which have so often passed for accurate evaluation. If Mr. Allen's book does nothing else, it seems clear that it will compel a more reasonable approach to the political science of a century when religion and politics were so nearly inseparable. It should become the standard short work of reference for students of modern European political thought, and for them it will throw some useful beams of light into the centuries after the sixteenth.

There are books about this difficult subject which make it easy by blandly ignoring the difficulties. The reader is taken around the corners without knowing that corners are there; there are few contradictions; and the very simplicity is almost sufficient to breed incredulity. In this volume, however, there is repeated refusal to be clear where there is no clarity, to be precise where there is no precision, to be of the twentieth century when it is the sixteenth that is under discussion. Yet the result is anything but a dull or obscure book. The style is lively, and highly personal, and the matter proceeds from broad and accurate scholarship. Much of the book's effectiveness is owing to its arbitrary arrangement, whereby a genetic and unified treatment of very diverse persons and theories is made possible. No important theorist is left out, and yet, by separating England, France, and Italy, confusion is avoided. The introductory section on Lutheranism and Calvinism is the best discussion in English of their influence on politics known to your reviewer, and it should be read, along with the "preliminary" section for the nation concerned, before the book is used as reference for a particular theorist. No brief review beyond the title can describe the content of the book, but it might be mentioned that the discussion of toleration throughout, the treatment of Huguenot theory and its antithesis, and the careful examination of the main enigma in Machiavelli stand out as remarkable evaluations. Finally, anyone who has puzzled over sixteenth-century

political theories is bound to share the author's zest as he drives home his reasonable interpretations with blows from the best of hammers, fair and adequate quotation from the works of his subjects.—B.

*Feudal Germany.* By James Westfall Thompson. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1928. xxiii, 710 pp. \$5.00.

This valuable work consists of a series of studies of medieval Germany, especially from the ninth to the twelfth centuries. Professor Thompson differs from Bryce and Fisher in that he is not concerned primarily with the Holy Roman Empire, either its theory or its institutions, but with what may be called the national history of Germany itself. Here, however, his studies range so widely that his book is really the first adequate treatment in English of the important men and movements of medieval Germany. The first half, "Old West Feudal Germany," discusses the relations between church and state, the Cluny Reform, the war of investiture, the struggle between Guelf and Ghibelline, German feudalism, and the sentiment of medieval Europe towards the Germans. The whole of Part II, "New East Frontier Colonial Germany," is concerned with the medieval German expansion eastward.

The author's views are clear cut and strongly presented. He gives a thoroughgoing economic interpretation of the investiture struggle. Canossa is portrayed as a definite victory for Henry IV, who is called the greatest German ruler between Charlemagne and Charles V. The Germans are credited with anticipating the French and English in their attempt to establish a united centralized state, and with formulating ideas of constitutional government before any other people. The duel between Guelf and Ghibelline was really a struggle between the principle of a "federated feudal and limited monarchy," in which the rights and interests of local and central governments would be equally guaranteed, and an anachronistic imperialism that sought to unite more firmly Germany and Italy.

Henry the Lion is the hero of Professor Thompson's book and Frederick Barbarossa its dark villain. Frederick's "crowning wrong" was the destruction of Saxony, home of the constructive states rights' federal principle, and heart of true Germany. Perhaps his greatest blunder was a failure to recognize the importance of the expansion eastward, which Professor Thompson, with Lamprecht, regards as the great deed of the Germans in the Middle Ages.

The motives and forms of this expansion are analyzed painstakingly and in considerable detail. There is already an abundant literature in German on the topic, but Pro-

fessor Thompson makes his treatment new and interesting by the analogy he draws between German eastward and American westward expansion. It is largely the same story of the attempt of common people to escape to the free land of the frontier. Sometimes they went of their own accord; often they were stirred by promoters serving ecclesiastical or secular authorities. Much of this expansion took the form of the definite extension of German political authority through conquest. In some regions, as in Bohemia and Poland, German civilization and influence expanded without political conquest, as American influence has grown throughout the most of Latin-America.

The author's well-known interest in economic history, which has recently resulted in his *Economic and Social History of the Middle Ages*, colors the present work. So, unfortunately, does a bias against the Church, which leads him to characterize the Crusades flatly as "that great manifestation of medieval bigotry," and medieval Christianity as "bigoted and intolerant" by nature.

It is equally unfortunate that so important a book should be seriously marred by a careless style and bad organization. Some of the repetitions are probably to be explained by the fact that several chapters first appeared as independent articles. They seem sometimes to have been thrown together, rather than woven together, to make up the present work. An enormous mass of original and secondary materials is referred to in the detailed and critical bibliographies in the footnotes. These will be extremely useful to the reader who wishes to pursue the subject further or to contest any view expressed in the text. Professor Thompson may have definite opinions, but he challenges refutation. This work of exceptional merit is made complete by six appendices, twelve maps (of which two are in color), and an index.

T. P. PEARDON.

Barnard College, Columbia University.

*Maya Architecture.* By George Oakley Totten. The Maya Press, Washington, 1926. 250 pp. Illus., maps. \$25.00.

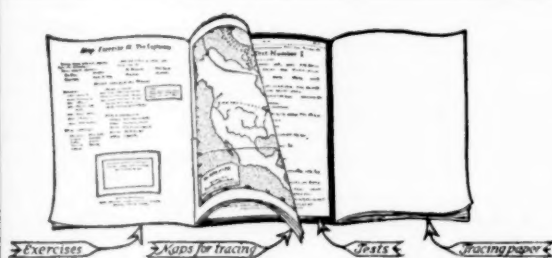
*Black Democracy. The Story of Haiti.* By H. P. Davis. Lincoln MacVeagh, The Dial Press, New York. Second revised edition, 1929. xvii, 372 pp. Maps, illus. \$5.00.

*Bolivar, the Liberator.* By Michel Vaucaire. Translated from the French by Margaret Reed. Houghton Mifflin Co., New York, 1929. xi, 205 pp. Illus. \$3.50.

*Foreign Legionaries in the Liberation of Spanish South America.* By Alfred Hasbrouck. Columbia University Press, New York, 1928. 470 pp. Map. \$6.75.

The first volume here listed is the most elaborate one that has been printed in the United States on the architecture of the Mayas. It is the work of a professional architect, and deals particularly with the Classic Period, before 600 A. D., and with the Renaissance Period, from about 1000-1200 A. D., in Maya history.

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A bibliography of the wealth of material contained in New York libraries, archives and collections indicating unworked material and showing ways in which it can be utilized.

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The author has not only sketched the changes in Maya art, government, and life in general, but he has elaborated his work with an interesting and detailed discussion of architectural forms and devices, illustrating his text with many drawings and dozens of pictures, some of which are colored. This book is invaluable to the student of American archaeology, and should be on the library shelves of all schools offering courses in Hispanic-American history, if for no other reason than because of the value of its illustrations.

The second volume under review is written by a man who has spent twelve years as a resident of Haiti. He has attempted, and fairly well succeeded, in giving a sketch of its history from the time the island was discovered by Columbus in 1492 to January, 1928. However, the work treats only of Haiti proper, which is the western side of the island, and is not a history, except, incidentally, of Santo Domingo, which lies to the east.

The author divides the history of Haiti into six logical parts: "the pre-Columbian or aboriginal period, the period of Spanish discovery and settlement, the period of French colonization and development, the period of internal strife ending in emancipation of the slaves, the inauguration and turbulent history of the black republic, and, finally, Haiti and the American intervention" (p. 6). The first period here indicated is not treated. One chapter is devoted to the second period, while three deal with the third period. The remaining eleven chapters cover the history of Haiti since about 1800. Thus, much of the interesting history of the country is passed over in silence, making the treatment unbalanced, with overemphasis upon United States relations.

The volume is interestingly written, and there is a good index, but little accuracy is shown in spelling Spanish words. Some valuable notes on the different chapters, and a good bibliography are added at the end of the volume, which show that the author has been painstaking and conscientious in his efforts to produce a scholarly, and, at the same time, a popular work.

The third volume gives a sympathetic portrait of the life of the great South American Liberator, often called the George Washington, or the Napoleon, of South America. But this is not an exhaustive biography by any means. Rather, it is a series of short scenes, in fifty chapters, nicely fitted together to make a composite picture. The book is written in a pleasingly abrupt and imaginative manner, and when the reader has finished with the volume he feels as though he had a real speaking acquaintance with the great hero.

Simón Bolívar y Palacios was born of a noble family at Caracas, Venezuela, on July 12, 1783. Early in life he fell heir to a large fortune. He was educated chiefly by a tutor in Venezuela, and in the schools of Madrid. He married at the age of 18, but his wife died within two years. The vast fortune which he inherited was spent in European travel and in riotous living, in the hope of drowning his sorrow. In France, Bolívar fell under the spell of Napoleon Bonaparte, and absorbed many of the doctrines of the French Revolution. At the age of 23 he returned to Venezuela by way of the United States, and settled down as a rich rancher and slave owner. But, unable to refrain from participation in the growing enthusiasm for independence from Spain after 1808, he offered his services to the revolutionary government, and soon became the chief military leader in Venezuela. From 1812-1826 this man played the predominant rôle in freeing from Spanish domination Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, Bolivia, and Peru. He fought much of the time a losing campaign, but in the end he triumphed, aided in part in Peru, at least, by the other great South American military hero, San Martín. Bolívar died disappointed, sick at heart, and consumptive on December 17, 1830, at Santa Marta, Colombia. He had lived only 47 years, but his fame was to be everlasting, and today a South American State, a Colombian province, a Venezuelan harbor, and scores of towns are named in his honor.

This is not the best life in English of Bolívar, by any means, but it is doubtless the most interesting. There are a number of errors in fact, and the author or translator seems to have no conception of Spanish spelling.

The fourth volume here reviewed was submitted as a thesis in partial fulfillment for the degree of Ph.D., and is printed as number 303 of the Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law of Columbia University. The author has exploited the sources for his subject in many libraries in the United States, Venezuela, Colombia, and England.

Of all the fields for research in Hispanic-American history, perhaps that of the revolution for independence, from 1808 to 1826, is the most interesting, and the one which can be most profitably exploited by scholars in the United States. While many phases of this epoch have been treated by Hispanic-American historians a large number of subjects remain to be investigated. Such, for example, are the histories of the patriot navies, and the participation of United States' citizens in the several movements. On the latter subject the reviewer has been working for a number of years, and in his research he has felt the need for a clear portrayal and differentiation of the activities of other foreign citizens in the wars for independence. And now the latter task has been accomplished by Dr. Hasbrouck, and accomplished so well that it will not have to be done over again. Hence, this book should receive a wide welcome.

The title to the volume is misleading, for it does not treat all the countries in South America. Instead, it is limited to those regions which Bolívar was instrumental in freeing. The period of time covered is from 1810-1826. The Legionaries came from many countries, including England, Ireland, Scotland, Germany, Holland, France, Sweden, Italy, and Poland. In all, they numbered several thousand, and it seems more than probable that without their aid the movements for independence might not have succeeded as well as they did. Many inducements were made by the South American patriot governments to obtain foreign soldiers. Bounties of land and money were offered, high commands in the patriot armies were suggested, honors and wealth were hinted at. Agents were sent abroad to recruit volunteers. Many discharged veterans of the Napoleonic wars were thus induced to seek fortunes in an unknown land. The result, for these adventurers, was often the opposite of what had been expected, and untold hardships and disasters overtook many. Some few settled down in the country of their adoption, but the majority returned home, frequently sadder and wiser men. This is the story, and it is well told.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

University of South Carolina.

*Our Changing Civilization.* By John Herman Randall, Jr. Frederick A. Stokes Co., New York, 1929. 362 pp. \$3.00.

Three years ago Professor Randall gave us a notable book, *The Making of the Modern Mind*. In that book, with great erudition and insight, he took us on a sort of intellectual Cook's tour through the mansions of the mind. We watched him catch the tiny rivulets of thought and habit as they came from the great minds and institutions of the past and direct them into the mighty stream of western civilization. We were led to see through the rose windows of the medieval cathedral the light of faith which illuminated the so-called age of darkness. We lived again with Augustine and Aquinas and Dante in the age of faith, and

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played in a vicarious drama of salvation with heaven hovering overhead and Satan sizzling below. The radiant blaze of the Renaissance was rekindled; we saw the revolt against the withering rule of Rome, the overthrow of feudalism, and out of the chrysalis of a decaying civilization the birth of our own world. Professor Randall was our Virgil, and with clarity and kindness he sketched for us the background of contemporary civilization.

I am not privy to his purpose in writing *Our Changing Civilization*. Apparently, like all propagandists—and most thinkers who are worth their salt are propagandists—he now seeks to scatter the seeds of his synthesis over wider fields. *The Making of the Modern Mind*, albeit eminently readable, was essentially scholarly. It was too rich a diet for that statistical monstrosity, “the average man.” The present book is obviously intended to carry to the man in the street the message of intellectual and institutional mutability. Professor Randall, so to speak, has sent his muse into the market place, not indeed to beg for alms, but to hold up the torch of truth for those who run as they read. But if Professor Randall’s purpose is to reach the average man, I have a feeling that the book must fail. It contains too much of the language of the scholar and not enough that of the street. Consider, for example, George Babbitt’s reaction to such sentences as these picked at random:

“...under Robert Grosseteste Oxford had become the leading school of mathematical physics. Oxford was conservative theologically; it clung to the earlier medieval tradition of Augustine and Neoplatonism....Now Platonism was mathematical in its scientific spirit, whereas Aristotelianism was rather biological. Hence, the very theological conservatism of the Oxford schools made mathematical science more at home in Aristotelian Paris.”

Now, if Professor Randall replies that his purpose is not to reach the Babbitts, then there is little excuse for 177 of the 362 pages which make up this book. Unless it be on the theory that repetition makes for reputation. For there is nothing in them not to be found in the earlier book.

In the latter half of the book he does rather better. His language is not only simpler, but there is more of novelty. In his striving for effect, however, there are occasional lapses into sub-Menckenes. For instance, who else but himself would dare to put the following language into the mouth or pen of the author of *The Making of the Modern Mind*? “Of old it was written, ‘Blessed are the pure in heart, for they shall see God.’ But today it stands, ‘Blessed are they that read the Daily Pornographic, for they shall see Ruth Snyder.’”

But, after all, these are minor faults. The idea that civilizations are subject to the ordinary laws of growth, change, and decay cannot be too often repeated. Certainly ours is a changing world. The machine has played havoc not only with classical economics, but with its sister—the city—has uprooted many of our most cherished mores. If it destroyed the feudal manor and freed the serf it has in turn erected an industrial absolutism more tyrannical and less kindly. Doctrines of political liberty, suitable and meaningful in an agricultural polity or to a nation of craftsmen, have become empty husks where millions serve machines they do not own and cultivate the soil on the sufferance of bankers and money lenders. Indeed, the very slogans of freedom have become the battle cries of industrial despots. As Randall says: “The great mass of American factory workers have no means of protecting their most fundamental rights. They must trust to the benevolence and enlightened self-interest of an industrial autocracy.” Even labor unions are as straws against the steel armor of entrenched privilege.

The old-time religion is dying or at least becoming so changed as to be unrecognizable. The essential element of the miraculous has been pre-empted by science, and science to the average man means the mechanical performance of miracles. Modernism seeking to reconcile science with theology has come to grips with the fundamentalist faith of the fathers. But even on the jousting field there lingers an uneasy conviction that the old ways are best—that in

spite of steam and electricity, radios and aeroplanes, there is a personalized divinity which shapes our ends.

The family, once the firmest bulwark of morality, is disintegrating. The home has given way to the apartment, the broad yard to the city street. With advancing knowledge of contraception the emphasis has been shifted from procreation to recreation, and marriages have become tenuous sexual unions. Women are shaking off their consciousness of inferiority and are demanding a place in the sun.

Professor Randall has given us a moving picture of these changes and others, which, superficial though it be, has the ring of sincerity and the spark of truth. It is interesting to observe how faith has been pushed to the very periphery of philosophic thought. Philosophers, like Randall, have abandoned their ivory tower. They are less concerned with the Godhead than with how the world may be made a happier home. For divine teleology they have substituted the teleology of science. One can no longer say of them as Mrs. Browning said:

A fool will pass for such through one mistake,  
While a philosopher will pass for such  
Through such mistakes being ventured in the gross  
And heaped up to a system.

PETER H. ODEGARD.

Williams College, Williamstown, July, 1929.

## Book Notes

Father Cuthbert, O. S. F. C., has just published through Longmans, Green & Co. his two-volume history of *The Capuchins* (476 pp.), and has thereby done a good deal to fill for English readers a gap in the history of the Counter-Reformation. The Jesuits have occupied so much of the stage for most students of the period, that it often escapes attention that a new reform of the Franciscan Order furnished, in its fine first enthusiasm, many of the workers in Europe and in the rest of the world for the great resurgence of Catholicism in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Father Cuthbert does well, also, to make it clear that the founding of the Capuchins was a highly important part of a movement, in its origins independent of the Protestant Reformation, an internal spiritual regeneration in protest against the worldliness and decadence of the fifteenth-century church. The Capuchins welled up within the branch of the Franciscans which had originated in protest against the abandonment of the Founder’s living of the Rule—the Capuchins were born from among the Observants, who had been the Spirituals, who had broken with “the Community,” or the Conventuals, as they came to be called. It was quite fitting that Fra Matteo da Bascio in 1525 should as a purist from among former purists begin a repurification of regular life. Father Cuthbert’s history is meticulous and detailed and somehow the format of his volumes seems to add to the impression of solidity in his work. Quite often it is difficult to see the wood for the trees. Yet he has done in scholarly fashion an important piece of pioneer research and, modestly disclaiming the achievement of a definitive treatment, he has taken particular pains to make easier the tasks of students who follow him by providing excellent and full bibliographical notes and critical suggestions as to the value of the source materials.

There is no denying the importance of Dr. E. Boyd Jarrett’s *The Jesuit Enigma* (Boni & Liveright, New York, 1927, 351 pp. \$4.00), and yet one cannot help feeling that its reader must never forget that its author parted company with the order he describes after twenty years spent within it. Thus one expects and receives several things which must be kept distinct in any attempt at evaluation and be introduced as qualification of any short description. In the first place, Dr. Barrett seems sincere in his analysis, and yet he is of course basically out of sympathy with the



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The September number of the Student Service deals with The League of Nations and The World Court. The October issue (out October 5th) covers Problems of Government Finance. Single copies of these issues may be obtained at 15c a copy; in groups of five or more, 10c a copy.

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## EDITORIAL RESEARCH REPORTS

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order. In the second place, he is very well informed factually, and yet he obviously must make his facts sum up differently from those who are loyal to the order. One might go on, but the title itself is a frank confession of the nature of the book. It will be useful and at times very interesting to anyone who approaches it as it should be approached. It inevitably leads one to reflections on a Church which is vast and strong enough to show little tolerance to change and yet which comprehends a diversity of creatures and minds, and to recollection of its apparent imperviousness to personal reforming efforts such as Dr. Barrett's.

Macmillan's have published this year two companion volumes by F. Britten Austin, *A Saga of the Sea* (287 pp., \$2.50) and *A Saga of the Sword* (322 pp., \$2.50). Each in a series of separate accounts races in a sort of steeplechase from prehistoric times to the present, in warfare—the one naval, the other military. The former begins with Odysseus and reaches the *Monitor* and *Merrimac* in ten steps; the latter begins with primitive man in primeval forests and ends with perhaps equally primitive man in tanks in France. On the whole, whatever can be said for historical fiction can be said for Mr. Austin's books. One can never quite escape the pedagogical purpose. Information is lugged in wherever possible and no one ever used adjectives harder in order to get much into little space. In spite of all this the author does convey reasonably accurate "atmosphere" and often his narrative is thrilling. Both books therefore might profitably be used as aids in bringing to life for students Alexander the Great, Gustavus Adolphus, the Venetian and the Dutch Republics, Nelson, or the American clipper.

We have received from G. P. Putnam's Sons two volumes of a series of four published by them, entitled, *Life and Work of the People of England: a Pictorial Record from Contemporary Sources*. The volumes at hand are by Dorothy Hartley and Margaret M. Elliot and are *The Fourteenth Century* (xxi, 87 pp., 230 illustrations, \$2.50) and *The Seventeenth Century* (xx, 83 pp., 166 illustrations, \$2.50). Volumes dealing with the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries appear to be in the press. All concerned with this enterprise are to be congratulated, in particular the authors for their courage, but as well the curators of museums and libraries who have assisted, and the publishers who have made such handsome and generously illustrated books at such low cost. They will unquestionably be warmly welcomed by teachers of English history and literature in the schools, and they would not be out of place as reference books for college students. There are a few inaccuracies

in descriptions of the pictures, but they are not serious. The literary material is a sternly pruned and highly systematized description of the life and work of the times, with cross-references to the plates. Again, there are occasional inaccuracies, chiefly owing to the unqualified character which brief description must have, but they are made up for by neat quotations from contemporary records. Altogether, this seems likely to be a most admirable series and one of interest to students and of use to teachers. Many of the plates have never before been published, and they provide a novel and comprehensive gallery of convincing pictures by contemporaries of the events they portray.

Under the title of *Twelve Bad Men* (Crowell, New York, 1929, 351 pp.), Mr. Sidney Dark has published short biographical sketches of Louis XI, Cesare Borgia, Cellini, Thomas Cromwell, Mazarin, Judge Jeffreys, Marlborough, Frederick the Great, Casanova, Talleyrand, Fouché, and Robespierre. It will be seen that the title is one of convenience, and when it is added that Mr. Dark does not divorce his characters unduly from their *milieu*, it can be said that he does less violence to history than might have been expected.

Mr. Vincent T. Harlow, keeper of the Rhodes House library at Oxford, and already known for his studies in British imperial history, has edited and introduced historically the original narratives of a number of early journeys abroad from Europe, under the title, *Voyages of Great Pioneers* (Oxford University Press, New York, 1929, iv, 380 pp., \$2.00). He has done his task competently and interestingly, and, as usual, his publishers have greatly assisted him by excellent bookmaking and twenty-four most useful contemporary (or effectively contemporary) illustrations of persons, maps, places, instruments, and ships. Within the limits of his choice it is hard to imagine a better introduction for students of almost all ages to European expansion. A list of the original narratives (extracted) will indicate the scope of the book. Friar William of Rubruck (1253), Marco Polo, Columbus (first voyage), Da Gama (first voyage), Gilbert's discourse to prove a North West Passage, Frobisher's second voyage, Drake's circumnavigation, Raleigh's discovery of Guiana, Lancaster's voyage to the East Indies (1601), The Massacre of Amboyna, Tasman's Journal, and Cook's first voyage round the world. Except for the comparative neglect of Spanish effort after Columbus, and Portuguese journeys to the further East, that is a good list and one of interest and service to those who need to refer to typical incidents of European expansive energy, and are glad to obtain a good compendium at a modest price.

The most recently received volume of the *Berkshire Studies in European History* is Geoffrey Bruun's *The Enlightened Despots* (Holt, New York, 1929. x, 105 pp.). It follows the usual form and consists of three essays, one on the enlightenment, one on its three greatest exponents, and one on some lesser despots. One has the impression that the subject is too great for the scope of the *Studies*, for all three essays, although freshly written, suffer from the very fault of textbooks which these volumes were planned to correct—too-concentrated information. The volume will, however, when used as supplementary reading, give a very fair idea of the scope of Enlightened Despotism in Europe.

*The Inquiring Mind*, by Zechariah Chafee, Jr., Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York, 1928, \$2.75. This little volume assembles the writings of a staunch warrior, who has broken many a lance in the name of freedom of the mind. The author is not only a well-known liberal, but a distinguished legal scholar. It is useful to have made more readily available his essays on the principal legal decisions in the field of political liberty since the publication of his *Freedom of Speech* in 1922. The remainder of the book is made of less distinguished miscellaneous papers, though the essays on Marshall and Mill are welcome.—J. McG.

## ANNOUNCEMENT TO MEMBERS of the NATIONAL COUNCIL for the SOCIAL STUDIES

Publication No. 4 will be mailed free to all members in good standing about October 15th. It contains a study of collateral reading entitled, *The Management of the Reading Program in the Social Studies*, by W. G. Kimmel.

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*The Modern World* (320 pp., New York, Longmans, Green & Co., 1929), by F. S. Marvin, is a brief survey of the history of Europe from the French Revolution to the League of Nations. The book contains a fair amount of political history—"as much as is usually expected in the studies and examinations of scholars at about the age of sixteen." The changes in thought and the advances in knowledge in Europe during this period receive special consideration, as do also the economic and social changes. Chief emphasis is laid upon the countries of France, Germany, and Italy, while England, Austria, Russia, and the other countries are brought in in their proper connections, but do not receive extended treatment. The book is built around a nucleus of "science" and the application of science to life and industry. *The Modern World* is to be commended as a simple, elementary review of European development from 1789 to 1920. It contains ten good black-and-white maps, but has no bibliography or suggested readings.—W. C. L.

*The Economic, Financial, and Political State of Germany Since the War* (134 pp., New Haven, Yale University Press, 1928), by Dr. Peter P. Reinhold, formerly Finance Minister of the German Reich, consists of a series of six lectures delivered before the Williamstown Institute of Politics in the summer of 1928. The lectures deal with: Germany at the End of the War; Reparations from the Armistice to the Dawes Plan; Financial Policy and Recovery in Present-day Germany; Prosperity and Depression in Germany Since the Stabilization of the Mark; the Prospects of the Dawes Plan; and the Problems of Transfer and of Germany's Future. The volume really presents a survey of Germany's financial problems within the decade 1918 to 1928. It deals at great length with the history, workings, and future of the Dawes Plan. However, the report of the Young Committee on Reparations, which committee met after the book was off the press, meets and deals with some of the criticisms made by Reinhold. Politically, Reinhold feels certain that "the democratic republic in Germany is completely consolidated." Further, that "war, revolution, collapse of the currency are things of the past. We are now building a new Germany.... We believe in our future and we are educating our youth for this future—not, as formerly, to be soldiers of the emperor, but to become a healthy generation that will know what it works for and will take its part in the large cultural activities of our nation and of the world."

A. R. Cowan's *War in World History* (Longmans, New York, 1929, vii, 120 pp., \$2.40) is an essay of a highly opinionated character, which uses the author's knowledge of world history to illustrate his views of human "mass malignity." It is almost undocumented and contains some generalizations which are notable matters of opinion, and it attempts to present a new synthesis of world history. It may do so in print, but its theme is not new. In fact, it is a little hard to see what object is to be gained by publishing it.

*An Outline History of the World* (560 pp., Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1928), by H. A. Davies, of the Leighton Park School, is a well-written and interesting high school text covering the entire field of history from "Early Man" to "Civilization in the Twentieth Century." Special emphasis is placed upon the contributions of the various peoples, and upon the modes and means of life at the successive stages of world development. Necessarily superficial in treatment, it yet touches upon the high spots, and is remarkably well organized. Although this is only a matter of opinion, it seems to the reviewer that there is too much stress upon the early period—one-half the book being devoted to the story of events down to the fall of Rome. The world, from the beginning of the Middle Ages to the present time, is considered in some 280 pages. Less might have been said about Philip's defeat at Cynoscephalae so that more could have been said about mercantilism, or that Adam Smith or Roosevelt might have

found mention. There are included in the volume several hundred excellent illustrations, as well as some very good maps, a useful time chart, and two convenient lists of important dates. There would seem to be little question as to the "teachability" of the book, and it should prove to be of great interest to teachers and students alike.—W. C. L.

## Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK, PH.D.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—Owing to space limitations, it has been impossible to print Dr. Stock's usual list in this issue. It will be incorporated with his list in the November number.

## Books on History and Government Published in the United States from March 30 to August 31, 1929

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

### AMERICAN HISTORY

- Abbott, Othman A. *Recollections of a pioneer lawyer*. 2 vols. Lincoln, Neb.: Neb. State Hist. Soc.
- American Academy of Social and Political Science. *Tariff problems of the United States*. Phila.: Author. 300 pp. \$2.00.
- Andrews, Matthew P. *History of Maryland*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Doran. 731 pp. \$7.25.
- Barker, Eugene C., and others. *The story of our Nation, the United States of America*. Evanston, Ill. Row, Peterson. 418 pp. \$1.28.
- Bartlett, W. W. *History, tradition, and adventure in the Chippewa valley*. Chippewa Falls, Wis.: Chippewa Printery. 244 pp. \$3.50.
- Bashford, Herbert. *Stories of Western pioneers*. San Francisco: Harr Wagner. 192 pp. \$1.12.
- Black, John D. *Agricultural reform in the United States*. N. Y.: McGraw-Hill. 380 pp. \$4.00.
- Clark, M. G., and Gordy, W. F. *What men from Europe brought to America*. N. Y.: Scribner. 264 pp. \$1.00.
- Cornish, H. R., and Hughes, T. H. *History of the United States for Schools*. N. Y.: Hinds, Hayden & Eldredge. 609 pp. \$1.72.
- Coddington, E. C., and Long, W. J. *Our Country; a first book of American history*. Boston: Ginn. 410 pp. (4 p. bibl.). \$1.08.
- Denny, Harold N. *Dollars for bullets. [America in Nicaragua.]* N. Y.: Dial Press. 411 pp. (5 p. bibl.). \$4.00.
- Dickson, A. J. *Covered wagon days; a journey across the plains in the sixties*. Cleveland: A. H. Clark Co. 287 pp. \$6.00.
- Fish, Carl R. *History of America*. N. Y.: Am. Book Co. 570 pp.
- Ford, Antoinette E. *My Minnesota*. Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan. 416 pp. \$1.28.
- Ghent, W. J. *The road to Oregon*. N. Y.: Longmans. 290 pp. \$5.00.
- Gordy, Wilbur F. *How the colonies grew into states*. N. Y.: Scribner. 287 pp. \$1.00.
- Grinnell, George B. *Two great scouts and their Pawnee battalions*. Cleveland, O.: A. H. Clark Co. 300 pp. \$6.00.
- Hall, Jennie. *The story of Chicago*. Chic.: Rand McNally. 303 pp. (3 p. bibl.). 90 cents.
- Halleck, R. P., and Frantz, Juliette. *Founders of our nation*. N. Y.: Am. Book Co., 326 pp. 88 cents.
- History of Trenton (a) 1679-1929. 2 vols. Princeton: Princeton Univ. 1142 pp. (10 p. bibl.). \$10.00.
- Howland, C. P., editor. *Survey of American foreign relations*. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press.



- Hulbert, Archer B. *Frontiers, the genius of American nationality*. Boston: Little Brown. 276 pp. \$3.00.
- Hungerford, Edward. *The story of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, 1827-1927*. 2 vols. N. Y.: Putnam. 384, 375 pp. \$10.00 set.
- Keenleyside, H. L. *Canada and the United States*. N. Y.: Knopf. 459 pp. \$4.00.
- Kelsey, Rayner W. *Farm relief and its antecedents*. Phila.: McKinley Publishing Co. 32 pp. 25 cents.
- Kelsey, Rayner W. *The Tariff*. Phila.: McKinley Publishing Co. 32 pp. 25 cents.
- Kelsey, Rayner W. *Prohibition*. Phila.: McKinley Publishing Co. 32 pp. 25 cents.
- Kibler, J. L. *Sketches of one hundred twenty-five historic Virginia landmarks*. Richmond, Va.: Garrett and Massie, 1406 E. Franklin St. 141 pp. \$1.00.
- King, Clyde L., editor. *Farm relief*. Phila.: Amer. Acad. of Soc. and Pol. Science. 487 pp.
- Kite, Elizabeth S. *L'Enfant and Washington*. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 193 pp. \$3.00.
- Lefferts, Walter. *Our country's leaders and what they did for America*. Phila.: Lippincott. 336 pp. \$1.05.
- Lewis, Lloyd, and Smith, H. J. *Chicago, the history of its reputation*. N. Y.: Harcourt. 520 pp. (3 p. bibl.). \$3.75.
- McKay, Martha N. *When the tide turned in the Civil War*. Indianapolis: Helen M. Steele, 811 East Drive. 66 pp. \$1.50.
- Merriam, Charles E. *Chicago*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 305 pp. \$3.50.
- Miller, Hugh G. *The Isthmian highway*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 341 pp. \$4.50.
- Moberly, H. J., and Cameron, W. B. *When fur was King*. N. Y.: Dutton. 254 pp. \$2.75.
- Overton, J. M. *Long Island's Story*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Doran. 358 pp. (3 p. bibl.). \$3.50.
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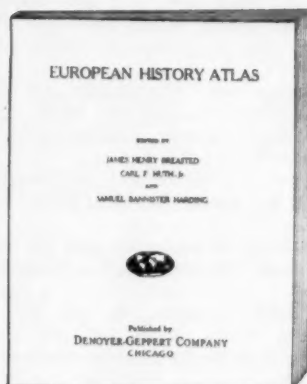
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